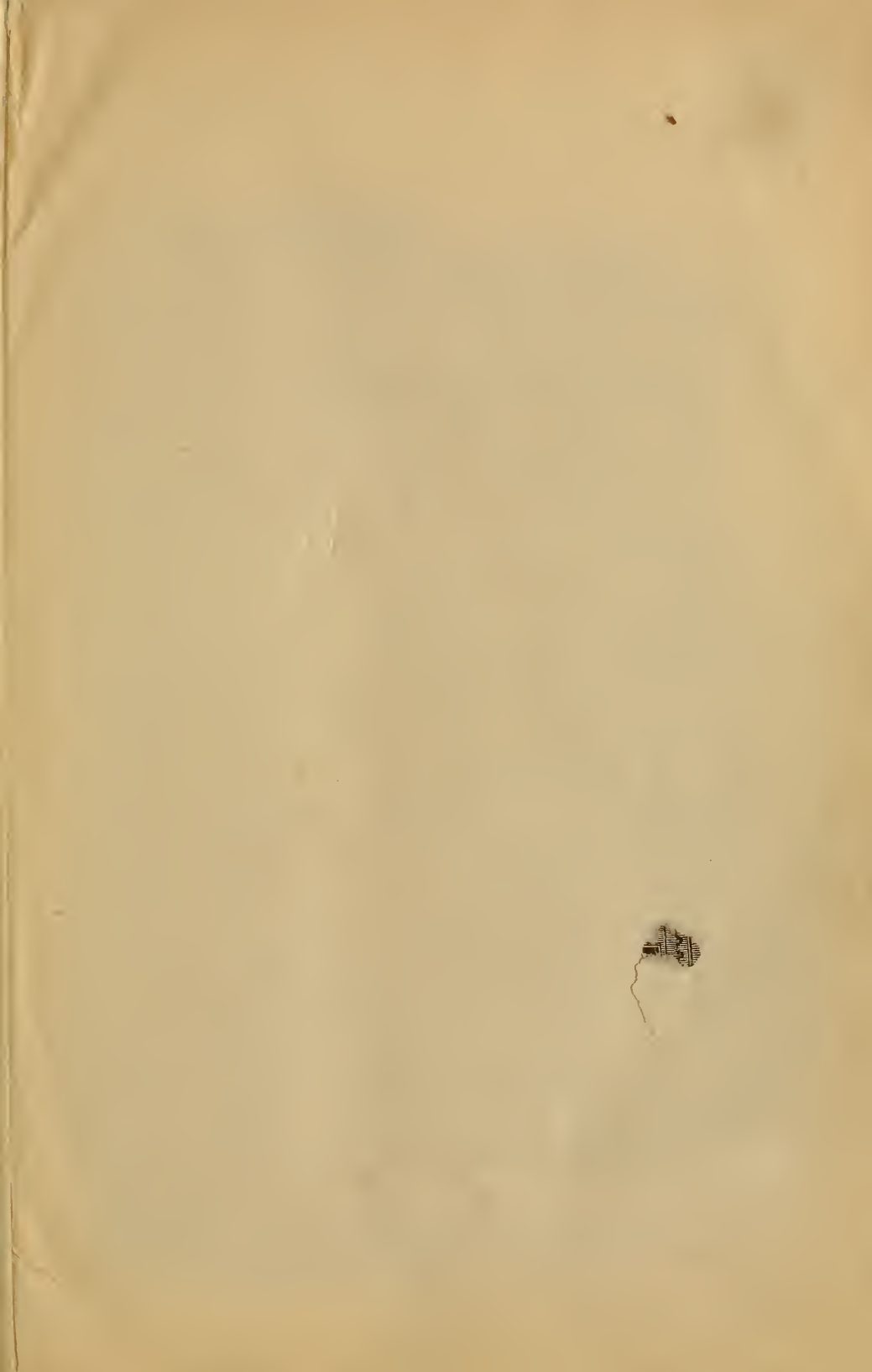
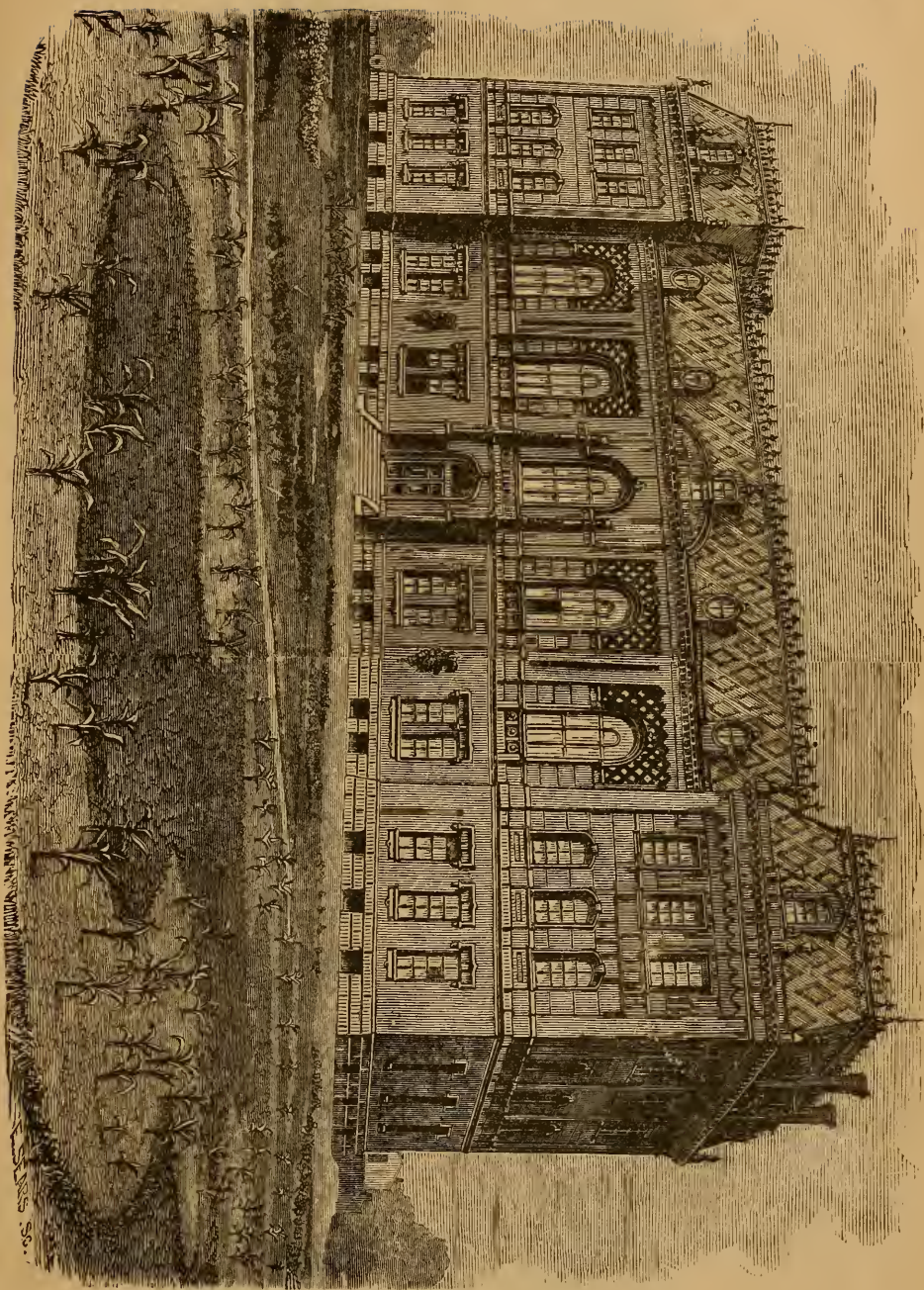






AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT BUILDING, WASHINGTON, D. C.





THE NATION'S CAPITOL.

A
CENTENNIAL VIEW
OF
OUR COUNTRY AND ITS RESOURCES.

GIYING A

Brief Outline History of the Birth and Growth of the Nation and each State separately,

AND THUS INTRODUCING THE READER TO

THEIR PRESENT VAST EXTENT AND VARIED RESOURCES,

AND FOLLOWING WITH

GRAPHIC DESCRIPTIONS

OF THE

*Rivers, Lakes, Mountains, CITIES, Soil, Climate, Productions,
Minerals, Manufactures, Internal Improvements, Commerce,
Finances, Government, Schools, Religious Denominations,
ETC., ETC.*

INTERSPERSED WITH MANY

EXCITING INCIDENTS IN AMERICAN HISTORY,

AND CLOSING WITH

VIVID WORD-PICTURES OF THE MOST WONDERFUL THINGS IN NATURE AND ART IN AMERICA,
AN ABLE HISTORY OF THE AMERICAN FREE SCHOOLS, AND A RESUME OF THE
GLORIOUS RESULTS OF A CENTURY UNDER FREE INSTITUTIONS.

By JAS. D. McCABE, Jr.,

AUTHOR OF "GREAT FORTUNES," "PLANTING THE WILDERNESS," "CROSS AND CROWN," ETC.

PROFUSELY ILLUSTRATED.

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PREFACE.

AMID the rejoicings and congratulations which will occupy the people of the United States during the Centennial year now opening, we may with profit and with pride turn our attention from the consideration of our history to an examination of the actual condition of our country at the close of its first century of national existence. Few of our people are well informed as to the land of their birth. They have a vague idea that it is a "great country," but they have but a faint conception of the immense size of the Republic. Some years ago an English traveller published the following comparative view of the magnificent extent of our country, and his statement seemed to take even our own people by surprise. He said:

"Yes, the Republic is a big country. In England we have no lines of sufficient length, no areas of sufficient width, to convey a just idea of its size. The State of Oregon is bigger than England; California is about the size of Spain; Texas would be larger than France, if France had won the frontier of the German Rhine. If the United States were parted into equal lots, they would make fifty-two kingdoms as large as England, fourteen empires as large as France. Even the grander figure of Europe fails us when we come to measure in its lines such amplitudes as those of the United States. To wit: from Eastport to Brownsville is farther than from London to Tuat, in the Great Sahara; from Washington to Astoria is farther than from Brussels to Kars; from New York to San Francisco is farther than from Paris to Bagdad. Such measures seem to carry us away from the sphere of fact into the realms of magic and romance.

"Again, take the length of rivers as a measurement of size. A steamboat can go ninety miles up the Thames, two hundred miles up the Seine; five hundred and fifty miles up the Rhine. In America, the Thames would be a creek, the Seine a brook, the Rhine a local stream, soon lost in a mightier flood. The Mississippi is five times longer than the Rhine; the Missouri is three times longer than the Danube; the Columbia is four times longer than the Scheldt. From the sea to Fort Snelling, the Missouri is plowed by steamers a distance of two thousand one hundred and thirty-one miles; yet she is but the second river in the United States.

"Glancing at a map of America, we see to the north a group of lakes. Now our English notion of a lake is likely to have been derived from Coniston, Killarney, Lomond, Leman, and Garda. But these sheets of water give us no true hint of what Huron and Superior are like, scarcely indeed of what Erie and Ontario are like. Coniston, Killarney, Lomond, Leman, and Garda, put together would not cover a tenth part of the surface occupied by the smallest of the five American lakes. All the waters lying in Swiss, Italian, English, Irish, Scotch, and German lakes might be poured into Michigan without making a perceptible addition to its flood. Yorkshire might be sunk out of sight in Erie; Ontario drowns as much land as would make two duchies equal in area to Schleswig and Holstein. Denmark proper could be washed by the waves of Huron. Many of the minor lakes in America would be counted as inland seas elsewhere; to-wit: Salt Lake, in Utah, has a surface of two thousand square miles; while that of Geneva has only three hundred and thirty; that of Como only ninety; that of Killarney only eight. A kingdom like Saxony, a principality like Parma, a duchy like Coburg, if thrown in one heap into Lake Superior, might add an island to its beauty, but would be no more conspicuous in its vast expanse than one of those pretty green islets which adorn Loch Lomond.

"Mountain masses are not considered by some as the strongest parts of American scenery; yet you find masses in this country which defy all measurement by such puny chains as the Pyrenees, the Apennines, and the Savoy Alps. The Alleghanies, ranging in height between

Helvellyn and Pilatus, run through a district equal in extent to the country lying between Ostend and Jaroslaw. The Wahsatch chain, though the name is hardly known in Europe, has a larger bulk and grandeur than the Julian Alps. The Sierra Madre, commonly called the Rocky Mountains, ranging in stature from a little below Snowdon to a trifle above Mont Blanc, extend from Mexico, through the Republic, into British America, a distance almost equal to that dividing London from Delhi."

Such are the territorial dimensions of our country, as measured by a foreigner, and that they are in no way exaggerated will be found by all who study the subject. But the greatness and interest of the Republic do not consist in its vast size. We have within our limits nearly every variety of climate known to man, and a soil capable of producing almost every product of the earth, from the stunted herbage of the frozen regions to the luxuriant fruits of the tropics. The ground is rich in mineral deposits, from the useful, but homely veins of coal, to beds of the most brilliant and valuable jewels. The earth yields us not only our food, but the rarest medicines and drugs. It pours out in streams oil for burning, gas that may be used fresh from the natural springs, salt that requires but the heat of the sun for its perfection, and beds of pure soda that cover the earth like the dust in the highways. In short, all that is needed for the preservation and comfort of animal and human life exists in this favored land in the greatest profusion.

Such are the natural advantages of our favored land. All these existed at the time when our fathers laid the first foundations of the great nation into whose hands the destinies of this wonderful land have been committed. Looking back over the years that have elapsed since the period of colonization, we can trace the successive steps by which the country has been brought to its present state of prosperity and power. We can note the unprecedented increase of population; the civilization and building up of all parts of the vast continent, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from British America to the Gulf of Mexico; we can see stately and populous cities rising where less than a century ago the red man roamed through the forest;

we can trace the long lines of railway stretching over the Union where once the Indian trails were the only paths, and can count by millions the value of the mighty inland commerce which has succeeded to the ventures of the insignificant traders of a hundred years ago. Surely a more profitable or engaging study cannot employ our time during the Centennial season we are now celebrating.

The aim of this work is to present to the reader in a compact and convenient form the means of pursuing such a study with but little trouble to himself. The work is meant to show at a glance the actual condition of the Republic at the present day, its achievements, wealth, power, prosperity, resources, and liabilities. It is believed that nothing that can contribute to this end has been omitted.

The tables and other statistics in the body of the book are from the latest reports, both State and Federal, available. The census of the whole country is taken but once in ten years, and for many of the items the census of 1870 is the only authority accessible. The book presents the latest information to be obtained on the subjects of which it treats. It is to be hoped that among the achievements of our country during the next century the provision of a more perfect system for the collection of statistics, both State and Federal, will be numbered. The author would here express his grateful acknowledgments to General Francis A. Walker, the accomplished Superintendent of the Census of 1870, for assistance received from him.

It is hoped that the illustrations will aid in bringing to the mind of the reader a vivid picture of the busy, restless, energetic Republic of the West, and also render him more familiar with some of the charms of American scenery.

J. D. McC.

January 1st, 1876.

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OUR COUNTRY AND ITS RESOURCES.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

THE AMERICAN CONTINENT.

THE Continent of America, though not discovered until a very late period in the history of the world, is the second in size of the great natural divisions of the earth. It extends from Point Barrow (on the north), in latitude $71^{\circ} 24' N.$, to Cape Froward, on the Straits of Magellan (on the south), in latitude $53^{\circ} 53' 7'' S.$ * It is known that the extreme northern lands of America extend beyond the seventy-eighth degree of North latitude, and the islands of Terra del Fuego prolong the land two or three degrees southward of the main land; but as these form no practical portions of our great division of the globe, we shall pass them by without further discussion. The mainland, which is alone embraced in our estimate, is 10,500 English miles in length, and includes every variety of climate, soil, production, race, and natural formation known, covering as it does an area of about 14,950,000 square miles. The Continent, taking this estimate as our guide, is four times larger than Europe, one-third larger than Africa, and one-half as large as Asia, including Australia and Polynesia. Its extreme breadth, north of the Equator, is between Cape Canso, in Nova Scotia, and Cape Lookout, in Oregon, a distance of 3100 miles, and very near the forty-fifth parallel of North latitude. South of the Equator it attains its greatest breadth between

* This calculation does not include the regions north of Point Barrow, or the Archipelago of Terra del Fuego.

Cape St. Roque, in Brazil, and Cape Parina, in Peru, a distance of 3250 miles, and between the fourth and seventh parallel of South latitude.

The physical features of this great Continent are among the most remarkable and interesting in the world. Constituting as it does about three-tenths of the dry land upon the surface of the globe, it is, in general, a region of great fertility. With the exception of about one-seventh, the entire Continent is susceptible of cultivation, and in its natural growths it is one of the most favored lands in the world. Its mineral resources are vast and inexhaustible, and embrace nearly every geological formation known to science. On the west side, the Continent is traversed by a vast range of mountains, ten thousand miles in length, stretching from Point Barrow on the north, to the Straits of Magellan on the south, and rearing their lofty summits far above the region of perpetual snow. The rivers, bays, and lakes of America are the most magnificent and extensive in the world, and afford commercial advantages of the highest order.

The Continent consists of two great peninsulas, known as North America and South America, connected by an isthmus called Central America. The relative importance of its great divisions may be seen from the following table, in which North and Central America are counted as one division :

	English Square Miles.
North America,	7,400,000
South America,	6,500,000
Islands,	150,000
Greenland, and the islands connected with it,	900,000
Total,	14,950,000

As it is not our purpose to devote any portion of this work to the other divisions of the Continent, we pass at once to a brief consideration of the division of

NORTH AMERICA.

Including Central America, this great division of the Continent lies between the sixth parallel of North latitude and the Arctic Ocean. It is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by the Gulf of Mexico and South America, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. Its length on the Atlantic side, from Hudson's Straits to the Florida Channel,

following the indentations of the coast, is about 4800 miles, and from thence to Panama about 4500 more, making a total length of 9300 miles. On the Pacific side, the length, counting the coasts of the Gulf of California, is 10,500 miles. The north and northeast shores are reckoned at about 3000 miles, which gives a total coast line of about 22,800 miles.

According to Professor De Bow, the Superintendent of the Seventh Census of the United States, North America comprises an area of 8,377,648 square miles, an estimate which exceeds that already given by us. It is subdivided by him as follows:

	Square Miles.
British America,	3,050,393
United States.	3,306,865
Mexico.	1,038,834
Russian America,*	394,000
Danish America (Greenland).	384,000
Central America,	203,551
	8,377,648

The country lying north of the United States, and known as British America, extends from the States to the Arctic Ocean. It is settled thickly along its southern and eastern borders, but the remainder is a vast, untamed region, too cold for colonization by Europeans, and inhabited only by a hardy race of Indians, and by a few whites engaged in the fur trade. The country along the southern and eastern borders, however, is of the greatest importance. It possesses a population of over three millions, and will compare favorably in its civilization and material prosperity with the States adjoining it.

South of the United States is a vast region, nominally a Republic, but in reality a country afflicted with chronic anarchy, called Mexico. Its people number nearly eight millions, and consist of a mixture of Spanish and Indians. They are but little more than half civilized, and are utterly incapable of conducting the government or developing the resources of their country, naturally one of the richest and most productive in the world.

* Now a part of the United States, and known as Alaska.



THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Is the name given to the great and powerful Republic, occupying the central portion of North America, and lying between Mexico and British America. The Republic lies between latitude $24^{\circ} 30'$ and 49° N., and between longitude $66^{\circ} 50'$ and $124^{\circ} 30'$ W. It is bounded on the north by British America, and is partly separated from that country by the River Saint Lawrence, and Lakes Superior, Huron, Saint Clair, Erie, and Ontario; on the east by the Atlantic Ocean; on the south by Mexico and the Gulf of Mexico; and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. It has recently added to its territory that country formerly known as Russian America, now called Alaska, lying along the Pacific and Arctic Oceans, and between the fifty-eighth and seventy-second parallels of North latitude, and the one hundred and fortieth, and one hundred and seventieth degrees of West longitude.

DIMENSIONS.

This vast region covers an area of 3,306,865 square miles, and comprises nearly one-half of North America. Its extreme length, from Cape Cod, on the Atlantic, to the Pacific Ocean, is about 2600 miles, and its greatest breadth, from Madawaska, in Maine, to Key West, in Florida, is about 1600 miles. Its northern frontier line measures 3303 miles, and its southern line 1456 miles. Following the indentations of the shore, its coast line on the Atlantic is 6861 miles, on the Pacific 2281 miles, and on the Gulf of Mexico 3467 miles, making a total coast line of 12,609 miles.

The shores of the Pacific are bold and rocky, and are marked by comparatively few indentations. The principal are San Francisco Bay and the Straits of San Juan de Fuca. On the Atlantic and Gulf coasts, the shore is generally low, and deeply indented by numerous inlets, the principal of which are Passamaquoddy, Fenchman's, Penobscot, Casco, Massachusetts, Buzzard's, New York, Raritan, Delaware, and Chesapeake Bays, and Long Island, Pamlico, and Albemarle Sounds on the Atlantic; and Tampa, Appalachee, Appa-

lachicola, Pensacola, Mobile, Black, Barataria, Atchafalaya, Vermilion, Galveston, Matagorda, Aransas, and Corpus Christi Bays, on the Gulf of Mexico.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS.

The Republic consists of thirty-eight States and eight Territories. These are the States of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Florida, Texas, Arkansas, Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Iowa, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Kansas, Nebraska, Nevada, California, Oregon, and Colorado; and the Territories of Arizona, Dacotah, Idaho, Montana, New Mexico, Utah, Wyoming, and Washington. Besides these are the Indian Territory and Alaska.

For convenience, the States are usually subdivided as follows:

THE NEW ENGLAND STATES:—Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut. 6.

THE MIDDLE STATES:—New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware. 4.

THE SOUTHERN STATES:—Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas. 10.

THE WESTERN STATES:—Arkansas, Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, California, Oregon, Nevada, Nebraska, West Virginia, and Colorado. 18.

POPULATION.

The following table will show the relative size and importance of the States and Territories, together with their population, and the date of their admission into the Union:

TABLE.—Showing the Date of Admission, or Organization, Area, and Increase of Population, of the States, from 1790 to 1870.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	DATE.	Area in Sq. miles.	TOTAL POPULATION.									
			1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.	1860.	1870.	
Maine.....	1789	31,406	96,540	101,719	228,706	248,385	380,435	501,674	628,279	658,615		
New Hampshire.....	1776	9,280	141,899	185,762	214,360	244,161	269,328	284,563	326,073	318,310		
Vermont.....	1777	9,056	85,416*	154,465	217,713	235,764	280,652	291,938	314,120	316,008		
Massachusetts.....	1780	7,806	378,717	423,245	472,049	523,287	610,418	737,699	998,514	1,231,066		
Rhode Island.....	1790	1,048	69,110	60,122	77,031	83,609	97,199	108,830	147,545	174,660		
Connecticut.....	1788	4,750	228,141	251,002	262,042	275,202	297,675	308,978	371,792	460,147		
New York.....	1788	50,519	840,150	658,756	950,049	1,372,812	1,918,608	2,478,391	3,067,394	3,880,755		
New Jersey.....	1787	8,320	184,139	211,919	245,565	277,575	320,825	373,306	480,556	672,005		
Pennsylvania.....	1776	46,000	493,373	602,361	810,091	1,049,458	1,418,232	1,774,033	2,311,786	2,906,115		
Delaware.....	1787	2,120	59,066	64,273	810,091	727,459	767,148	780,855	911,532	1,112,217		
Maryland.....	1788	11,214	319,738	341,548	380,546	407,250	447,040	470,019	588,093	687,049		
District of Columbia.....	1790	60	748,308	880,200	974,622	1,065,379	1,221,406	1,289,747	1,421,661	1,596,632		
North Carolina.....	1789	45,302	431,761	478,103	555,500	638,829	737,987	829,639	992,639	1,021,163*		
South Carolina.....	1788	80,213	240,073	345,501	416,115	502,791	581,155	694,382	868,597	703,708		
Georgia.....	1788	59,268	82,548	162,101	222,453	340,987	516,823	691,392	906,185	1,057,286		
Florida.....	1815	50,722					24,730	54,477	87,445	140,425		
Alabama.....	1819	50,722					309,527	500,756	771,623	964,201		
Mississippi.....	1817	47,156		8,850	40,352	75,418	136,621	375,651	606,526	791,505		
Louisiana.....	1812	41,255			76,556	153,407	215,739	352,411	517,162	708,002		
Texas.....	1845	297,504							212,502	810,218		
Arkansas.....	1836	52,198				14,273	30,388	97,574	209,897	435,450		
Tennessee.....	1796	45,660	73,077	105,602	261,727	422,813	681,904	820,210	1,092,717	1,258,376		
Kentucky.....	1792	37,680		220,935	406,511	564,317	687,917	770,828	982,405	1,155,684		
Ohio.....	1802	39,964		45,385	220,760	581,434	937,903	1,519,467	1,980,329	2,359,602		
Michigan.....	1802	26,213			4,762	8,896	31,639	212,267	397,654	749,113		
Indiana.....	1816	33,809		4,875	24,520	147,178	348,031	665,896	988,416	1,350,428		
Illinois.....	1818	55,211			22,282	55,211	157,445	476,183	851,470	1,171,951		
Wisconsin.....	1838	53,924						30,945	175,881	1,055,133		
Minnesota.....	1858	81,299						6,077	173,855	433,706		
Iowa.....	1846	50,914						192,214	483,112	1,191,725		
Missouri.....	1821	67,350			20,845	66,586	140,455	383,702	682,044	1,182,012		
Kansas.....	1861	78,418							107,206	1,721,295		
California.....	1850	155,500						92,597	379,994	660,223		
Nevada.....	1869	80,000						18,294	62,465	90,923		
Nebbraska.....	1867	78,995						28,841	62,465	122,983		
Washington Territory.....	1853	81,559						42,491	6,857	42,491		
New Mexico.....	1850							11,594	23,925	23,925		
Deseret.....	1850							11,380	40,573	86,756		
Idaho.....	1861							93,516	91,874	91,874		
Montana.....	1867							14,511	4,857	14,511		
Wyoming.....	1890							14,998	14,998	14,998		
Colorado.....	1861							20,594	20,594	20,594		
Arizona.....	1867							34,277	34,277	34,277		
Total.....	1867		3,929,857	5,305,357	7,229,814	9,698,191	12,864,020	17,009,455	22,191,876	31,471,080	38,547,229	

* Population of West Virginia in 1870, 442,014. Not included in population of Virginia for that year.

RIVERS.

The topographical features of the United States are varied and interesting, consisting of immense chains of mountains, numerous rivers, bays, and lakes, and vast plains inhabited only by savages and wild beasts. The majority of the bays along its coasts are the outlets of the great rivers of the Republic. These rivers may be divided into four distinct classes, viz:

I. The Mississippi and its tributaries.

II. The rivers which rise in the Alleghany chain and flow into the Atlantic Ocean.

III. The rivers rising in the Southern States, and flowing into the Gulf of Mexico.

IV. The rivers which flow into the Pacific Ocean.

The rivers of the first class are the Mississippi, Missouri, Wisconsin, Iowa, Illinois, Ohio, Yazoo, Minnesota, Des Moines, Arkansas, and Red.

Those of the second class are the Penobscot, Kennebec, Connecticut, Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, Potomac, James, Chowan, Roanoke, Pamlico or Tar, Neuse, Cape Fear, Great Pedee, Santee, Savannah, and Altamaha.

Those of the third class are the Appalachicola, Mobile, Sabine, Trinity, Brazos, Colorado, and Rio Grande.

Those of the fourth class are the Columbia, San Joaquin, and the great Colorado of the West, the last of which flows into the Gulf of California.

THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER

Is the most important stream in the United States, and, together with its main branch, the Missouri, is the longest in the world. Its name is derived from an Indian word, signifying "The Great Father of Waters." The Mississippi proper is the smaller branch (the Missouri reaching farther back into the interior), and it is somewhat singular that it should have given its name to the whole stream. It rises in Itasca Lake, in the State of Minnesota, in a region known as the Hauteurs de Terre, 1680 feet above tide level, in latitude $47^{\circ} 10' N.$, and longitude $94^{\circ} 55' W.$ From this point it flows in a generally southward direction, emptying into the Gulf of Mexico in latitude $29^{\circ} N.$ Its total length, from its source to its mouth, is estimated at 2986 miles.

The main branch is called the Missouri River above the point of its junction with the smaller branch. The two rivers unite a short distance above the city of St. Louis. Under the present heading it is our purpose to treat of the Mississippi proper, reserving the Missouri for discussion farther on.

The Mississippi constitutes the great centre of a gigantic system of rivers, all of which unite in one grand channel and empty their waters into the Gulf. The area drained by them comprises a very large portion of the interior of North America. The tributaries of the great river find their way to it through rich and populous States, and between its source and its mouth it collects all the waters (with the single exception of those rivers flowing directly into the Gulf) of the immense region lying between the Alleghany and the Rocky Mountains. This region is usually known as the Mississippi Valley. Its southern boundary is the Gulf, and its northern limit the high hills in which rise the streams flowing into the Arctic Ocean and the lakes of British America. According to Charles Ellet, this region covers an area of 1,226,600 square miles, above the mouth of the Red River.

The river, with its tributaries reaching far back into the neighboring States and Territories, furnishes a system of inland navigation unequalled by any in the world. Steamers ascend the Mississippi itself from its mouth to the Falls of St. Anthony, in Minnesota, about 2200 miles, and above the falls the river is navigable for a considerable distance. In 1858 a steamboat succeeded in ascending the stream to near the forty-ninth degree of north latitude. The Missouri is navigable to the foot of the Rocky Mountains; the Ohio, to its head, at Pittsburg, Pennsylvania; and the Arkansas and the Red, each for more than 1000 miles. By means of the Cumberland and Tennessee Rivers, the mountains of East Tennessee have water transportation to the Gulf; and the Illinois River steamers penetrate to the country just back of Lake Michigan.

These rivers are all more or less crowded with steamers and other craft, plying a trade in comparison with which the fabled wealth of Tyre sinks into insignificance.

Numerous other branches of less extent empty into the main river, all of which are navigable to a greater or less degree. Below the mouth of the Red River, the main stream is divided into numerous branches, which are called bayous. Some of these, after pursuing an erratic course, find their way back to the Mississippi, while others

follow an independent course to the Gulf. The most important of these bayous is the Atchafalaya. The country lying between this stream (after its departure from the great river), the Mississippi, and the Gulf, is known as the Delta of the Mississippi.

The Delta is about 200 miles in length, with an average width of 75 miles. It comprises an area of 15,000 square miles, and is composed entirely of alluvion, the depth of which is estimated at 1000 feet. "The debris carried along with the flood is principally deposited near the borders of the stream, the necessary result being that these portions have been raised to a much higher level than the adjoining lands. In some places the slope is as much as eighteen feet in a distance of a few miles. The interior consists of vast swamps covered with trees, of which the tops only are visible during the floods. The river, for almost fifty miles from its mouth, runs nearly parallel with the Gulf of Mexico, from which it is separated at particular places by an embankment only half a mile across."

The alluvion plain extends above the Delta to a formation called the Chains, 30 miles above the mouth of the Ohio, a distance estimated at a little over 500 miles. The average breadth of this plain, which has been formed by the river itself, is about fifty miles, and its total area, including the Delta, about 31,200 square miles. Its height, at its northern extremity, according to Prof. Charles Ellet, jr., is 275 feet above the level of the sea. It descends this plain to the Gulf at the rate of about eight inches per mile. Its average descent along its entire course is about six inches to the mile.

The river is very tortuous, especially after passing the mouth of the Ohio. Its curves are immense, often traversing a distance of twenty-five or thirty miles, in a half circle, around a point of land only a mile, or half a mile in width. Sometimes, during the heavy freshets, the stream breaks through the narrow tongue of land, forming a "cut-off," which frequently becomes a new and permanent channel, leaving the old bed a "lake," as it is called by the boatmen. But for the height of the banks, and the great depth of the river, the formation of these "cut-offs" would be quite frequent, and the stream would be constantly changing its course. Attempts to form "cut-offs" by artificial means have generally failed. The river is remarkable for the constancy with which it maintains its average breadth of about 3000 feet. It rarely exceeds or falls short of this breadth except in the curves, which frequently broaden to near a mile and a quarter. The current is sluggish, except at high water, its depth at ordinary stages

being 75 feet at the head of the plain we have described, and 120 feet at its foot. Were the stream straighter, its current, which is now checked by the bends, would no doubt be too swift for navigation, and commerce would suffer.

"One of the most important facts in regard to the Mississippi is, that it flows from north to south. A river that runs east or west has no variety of climate or productions from its source to its mouth. The trapper and husbandman descending the 'Father of Waters,' constantly meet with a change of climate; they take with them their furs and cereal grains, the products of the North, to exchange for the sugar and tropical fruits that are gathered on the banks below. Again, the floods produced by winter snows and spring rains cannot be simultaneously discharged. The course of the stream being from north to south, spring advances in a reverse direction, and releases in succession the waters of the lower valley, then of the middle section, and finally the remote sources of the Mississippi and its tributaries. It is a remarkable fact that the waters from this last-named region do not reach the Delta until upwards of a month after the inundation there has been abating. The swell usually commences toward the end of February, and continues to rise by unequal diurnal accretions till the 1st of June, when it again begins to subside. No experience will enable a person to anticipate, with any approach to certainty, the elevation of the flood in any given year. In some seasons the waters do not rise above their channels; in others, the entire lower valley of the Mississippi is submerged. Embankments, called *levees*, have been raised from five to ten feet high on both sides of the stream, extending many miles above and below New Orleans. By this means the river is restrained within its proper limits, except at the greatest freshets, when the waters sometimes break over, causing great destruction of property, and even loss of life. The average height of the flood, from the Delta to the junction of the Missouri, is about 15 feet; at the mouth of the latter river it is 25 feet; below the entrance of the Ohio, the rise is often 50 feet; at Natchez, it seldom exceeds 30 feet; and at New Orleans is about 12 feet. This diminution is supposed to result from the drainage through the Atchafalaya, Bayou La Fourche, and other channels breaking from the lower part of the river to the Gulf of Mexico. The flood often carries away large masses of earth with trees, which frequently become embedded in the mud at one end, while the other floats near the surface, forming snags and sawyers."*

* Lippincott's Gazetteer.

the river, and formerly caused many terrible accidents. Recently they have been removed to a great extent by snag-boats and improved machinery.

The Mississippi empties itself into the Gulf through several mouths, which are termed *Passes*. The navigation is here very seriously obstructed by numerous bars, formed by the gradual deposit of the sediment with which the water is heavily charged. These render it impossible for vessels of the largest class to reach New Orleans. Over these bars there is a depth of water, varying greatly at different times, and often measuring only fifteen feet. Steam tugs can force vessels drawing two or three feet more than the actual depth, through the soft mud of the river bed. Repeated efforts have been made to deepen the passes by dredging, but the channel has filled up again so rapidly as to make all such efforts futile. It was once attempted to deepen the South West Pass (the principal mouth) by driving piles along each side. It was thought that by thus confining the stream within a limited width, it would of itself excavate a deep channel. The effect, however, was to force the bulk of the flow through another mouth called *Pass à l'Outre*, which for the time became a better channel than the South West Pass.

The navigation of the Upper Mississippi is broken in several places by falls and rapids, of which the principal are the Falls of St. Anthony, above St. Paul, Minnesota.*

The Mississippi River was discovered by Hernando de Soto, in June 1541. He reached it, it is supposed, at a point not far below the present town of Helena in Arkansas. In 1673, Marquette and Jolliet descended the stream to within three days' journey of its mouth; and in 1682, La Salle passed through one of its mouths to the Gulf, and took possession of the country along its shores, in the name of the King of France. In 1699, Iberville built a fort on the river; in 1703, a settlement was made on the Yazoo, a tributary, and called St. Peter's; and in 1718, the city of New Orleans was laid out. The levees of the lower Mississippi were begun in that year, and finished in front of New Orleans about 1728. The subject of the free navigation of the river occupied the earliest attention of the United States, and was the principal cause of the acquisition of Louisiana, by purchase from France. The battle of New Orleans (as it is called) was fought on its banks on the 8th of January 1815. During

* The prominent points along the river will be described in the chapters relating to the States.

the late war, the Confederates undertook to close the navigation of the river, and succeeded in doing so for more than two years, when the control of it was wrested from them by the Union forces. A number of severe engagements were fought on its banks, the principal of which were the battle of Belmont, in Missouri, and the conflicts at Island No. 10, Fort Pillow, New Madrid, Memphis, Vicksburg, Port Hudson, Grand Gulf, Baton Rouge, and Forts Jackson and St. Philip below New Orleans.

The principal tributaries of the Mississippi are, on the east, the Wisconsin, Illinois, Ohio, and Yazoo; on the west, the Minnesota, Des Moines, Missouri, Arkansas, and Red Rivers.

The total value of the steamboats engaged in trade on the Mississippi and its tributaries, is estimated at over \$6,000,000.

THE MISSOURI RIVER.

Though commonly regarded as the principal tributary of the Mississippi, the Missouri is in reality the main stream, since it is longer and of greater volume than the other river. It derives its name from an Indian word signifying "Mud River." It rises in the Rocky Mountains, in the Territory of Montana, in latitude 45° N., longitude $110^{\circ} 30'$ W. The springs in which it has its source are not more than a mile distant from the headwaters of the great Columbia River, which flows into the Pacific Ocean.

The Missouri proper begins at the confluence of three small streams of about equal length—the Jefferson's, Madison's, and Gallatin's—which run nearly parallel to each other. For the first 500 miles of its course, the Missouri flows nearly north, then turning slightly to the E. N. E., it continues in that direction until it is joined by the White Earth River, in latitude $48^{\circ} 20'$ N. It then bends to the southeast, and continues in that general direction until it joins the Mississippi, near St. Louis.

Four hundred and eleven miles from its source, the river passes through what is called "The Gates of the Rocky Mountains." This pass is one of the most remarkable on the Continent. For nearly six miles the rocks rise perpendicularly from the water's edge to a height of 1200 feet. The river is confined to a width of only one hundred and fifty yards, and for the first three miles there is only one point on which a man could obtain a foothold between the rocks and the water. One hundred and ten miles below the "Gates" are the "Great Falls of the Missouri," which, after those of the Niagara, are the most magnifi-

cent in America. These falls consist of four cataracts, respectively of 26, 47, 19, and 87 feet perpendicular descent, separated by rapids. They extend for a length of sixteen and a half miles, and the total descent in that distance is 357 feet. The falls are 2575 miles above the mouth of the river, which is navigable to them, though steamers do not usually ascend higher than the mouth of the Yellow Stone River.

The Missouri is said to be 3096 miles long from its mouth to its source, though it is believed that this estimate is a little too large. Add to this the length of the lower Mississippi, 1253 miles, and the total distance from the Gulf to the source of the Missouri, is 4349 miles—making it the longest stream in the world. It is generally turbid and swift, and upon entering the Mississippi, pours a dense volume of mud into that until then clear stream, and forever changes its hue. At the confluence of the two rivers, the water of the Mississippi refuses to mingle with that of its muddy rival, and the current of the Missouri may be easily distinguished for some distance below.

There is no important obstacle to navigation below the Great Falls, except that during the long hot summers the water is apt to be too low for any but the smallest steamers, owing to the fact that in its upper course the river passes through an open, dry country, where it is subject to excessive evaporation. Below the Falls it is bordered by a narrow alluvial valley, very fertile, and capable of being highly cultivated. Back of this valley lie extensive prairies. The river is half a mile wide at its mouth, and is in some places much wider. It receives all the great rivers rising on the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains, with the single exception of the Arkansas River, and the majority of the streams between its own bed and the Mississippi.

For the most part it flows through a savage or thinly settled region, and has but few important cities or towns on its banks. The principal of these are Omaha City, in Nebraska, Atchison and Leavenworth, in Kansas, and St. Joseph, Kansas City, Lexington, Booneville, Jefferson City, and St. Charles, in Missouri.

Its principal tributaries are the Yellow Stone, Little Missouri, Big Cheyenne, (greater) White Earth, Niobrara, Platte or Nebraska, Kansas and Osage, on the right; and the Milk, Dacotah, Big Sioux, Little Sioux, and Grand, on the left. These streams, with the Missouri, drain the entire country north of St. Louis, and between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains—an area of 519,400 square miles.

THE OHIO RIVER

Is the first great tributary of the Mississippi, flowing into it below the mouth of the Missouri. It was called by the early French settlers *La Belle Rivière* (the beautiful river), and its Indian name is said to have a similar meaning. It is noted for the uniform smoothness of its current, and the beauty of the valley through which it flows. It is formed by the confluence of the Alleghany and Monongahela Rivers, at Pittsburg, Pennsylvania. It flows in a generally W. S. W. direction, separating the States of West Virginia and Kentucky from Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, and empties into the Mississippi at Cairo, Illinois, 1216 miles from the Gulf of Mexico. The total length of the Ohio is 950 miles. The length of the valley through which it flows is only 614 miles, the windings of the river making up the difference. Its average breadth is a little over 600 yards. Its elevation at Pittsburg is 680 feet above the level of the sea, at Cincinnati, 414 feet, and at Cairo, 324 feet, giving an average descent of about 5 inches to the mile. The current is placid and uniform, having a medium force of about 3 miles an hour. Like all the western rivers, it is subject to great variations of depth. In the winter and spring it is very high, the spring rise being sometimes as great as 60 feet; and in the summer it is so low that it may be forded in many places above Cincinnati. The writer, when a lad, has frequently waded from the Virginia to the Ohio shore. At high water, steamers of the first class ascend to Pittsburg, but at low water only the lightest draft vessels can navigate it, and even these do so at a constant risk of running on a sand bar, and being compelled to remain there until the late summer and fall rains swell the stream again to an extent sufficient to float them. At Louisville, Kentucky, the only falls of the river occur. The descent is here about $22\frac{1}{2}$ feet in two miles. The current is very swift, but in high water first-class steamers pass over the rapids. A canal has been cut around them to the river below, by means of which the obstruction they present to navigation has been partly overcome. Formerly the river trade was most important and extensive. Of late years, however, it has been very much reduced by the competition of the railroads, but is still immense. The Ohio, for the greater part of its course, flows through a narrow, but beautiful valley. The hills, from two hundred to three hundred feet high, are covered with an almost continuous forest of a dark rich green hue, and come down so close to the water that at

times they seem to shut it in entirely. Though beautiful, the scenery is monotonous, and is rather tame. The river contains fully one hundred islands, some of which are exceedingly valuable and beautiful. There are also a number of "Tow Heads," as they are called—small sandy islands, covered with willows, and utterly barren. Below Louisville the country becomes flatter, and by the time the Mississippi is reached, the hills have entirely disappeared. The valley of the Ohio is exceedingly fertile, and is rich in various kinds of minerals.

Its principal tributaries are the Muskingum, Scioto, Miami, and Wabash, on the right, and the Great Kanawha, Big Sandy, Green, Kentucky, Cumberland, and Tennessee, on the left. The most important are the Wabash, Cumberland, and Tennessee, the last of which is the largest. The Tennessee and its tributaries reach far back into the mountains of that State and Virginia, and the headwaters of the Alleghany rise in the southern part of the State of New York and in Potter County, Pennsylvania. Between them and the waters which flow into the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Chesapeake Bay, there is only a slight elevation, and a distance of but a few acres. The area drained by the Ohio and its tributaries is about 200,000 square miles.

The country through which the Ohio flows is a prosperous agricultural region, and a number of large and thriving cities and towns are located on its banks. Its various prominent features will be noticed in other portions of this work.

THE ARKANSAS RIVER

Is the next important tributary of the Mississippi below the mouth of the Ohio. Next to the Missouri, it is the longest affluent of the great river. It rises in the Rocky Mountains near the centre of Colorado, and flows easterly for several hundred miles, after which it turns to the southeast and continues in that general direction until it reaches the Mississippi, in latitude $30^{\circ} 54' N.$, longitude $91^{\circ} 10' W.$ It enters Arkansas at Fort Smith, on the western frontier, and divides the State into two nearly equal portions.

In the upper part of its course it flows through vast sterile plains, but after entering the State which bears its name, continues its way through a region of considerable fertility. It is 2000 miles long from its source to its mouth, and is not obstructed by rapids or falls. It varies in width from three furlongs to half a mile. Its current is turbid and sluggish. The difference in the height of the water in the

floods and the dry seasons is about 25 feet. For the greater part of the year it is navigable by steamers for a distance of 800 miles from its mouth. The most important town on the river is Little Rock, the the capital of the State.

The last important tributary of the Mississippi is

THE RED RIVER.

This stream is formed by the confluence of two principal branches, of which the southern and larger rises in New Mexico, a little beyond the western boundary of Texas, in latitude $34^{\circ} 42' N.$, longitude $103^{\circ} 7' 10'' W.$; the northern in Texas, in latitude $35^{\circ} 35' 3'' N.$, longitude $101^{\circ} 55' W.$ These two branches unite in latitude $34^{\circ} 30' N.$, longitude $100^{\circ} W.$, in the State of Texas, and constitute the main river, which then flows nearly due east, forming the boundary between the Indian Territory and Texas. Upon reaching the Arkansas line, it passes into that State to Fulton, near the border, when it bends to the south and enters Louisiana. Then turning to the southeast, it flows across the last named State and empties into the Mississippi, 341 miles above the Gulf of Mexico. Its length, including the South Fork, is estimated by Colonel Marcy, U. S. A., by whom the river was explored, at 2100 miles—the main stream being 1200 miles long.

According to this authority, the South, or main, Fork, rises in the fissures of an elevated and sterile plain, called the Llano Estacado, at an altitude of 2450 feet above the sea. For the first sixty miles the sides of the river rise from 500 to 800 feet so directly from the water that the exploring party were obliged to pass up through the channel of the stream.

"After leaving the Llano Estacado," says Colonel Marcy, "the river flows through an arid prairie country, almost entirely destitute of trees, over a broad bed of light shifting sands, for a distance of some 500 miles, following its sinuosities. It then enters a country covered with gigantic forest trees, growing upon a soil of the most preëminent fertility; here the borders contract, and the water for a great portion of the year washes both banks, carrying the loose alluvium from one side, and depositing it on the other, in such a manner as to produce constant changes in the channel, and to render navigation difficult. This character continues throughout the remainder of its course to the Delta of the Mississippi; and in this section it is subject to heavy inundations, which often flood the bottoms to such

a degree as to destroy the crops, and occasionally, on subsiding, leaving a deposit of white sand, rendering the soil barren and worthless."

Shortly after leaving its sources, the South Fork passes through a vast bed of gypsum for a distance of 100 miles, which gives to its waters an intensely bitter and unpleasant taste, causing them rather to augment than diminish thirst.

The river is navigable during the greater part of the year to Shreveport, 500 miles from its mouth. Small steamers can ascend about 300 miles farther in high water.

About 30 miles above Shreveport is an immense collection of rubbish known as the "Great Raft," which forms the principal obstacle to the navigation of the upper river. It consists of driftwood and trees, which have been brought down for hundreds of miles by the current, and lodged here. This raft obstructs the channel for a distance of seventy miles, and for a considerable portion of the year causes the river to overflow the country along its banks. In 1834-35 it was removed by the Government of the United States at a cost of \$300,000, but a new raft has formed since then. In very high water small steamers pass around it.

The principal tributaries of the Red River are the Little Washita and Big Washita.

The other rivers, which are national in character—by which we mean not lying entirely or for the greater part in one particular State or Territory of the Union—are the Rio Grande, the Great Colorado of the West, the Columbia, and the St. Lawrence, the first and last of which form a portion of the boundaries of the Republic.

THE RIO GRANDE

Rises in the Rocky Mountains, in the Territory of New Mexico, near latitude 38° N., and longitude $106^{\circ} 30'$ W. Its course is at first southeast, then E. S. E., and finally nearly east. It forms the boundary between the State of Texas and the Republic of Mexico, and empties into the Gulf of Mexico, near latitude 25° N., and longitude 97° W. It is 1800 miles long, and is for the most part very shallow. Sand bars are numerous and render the stream almost unfit for navigation. Small steamers have succeeded in reaching Kingsbury's Rapids, about 450 miles from the Gulf. About 900 miles from its mouth the river is only three or four feet deep. This point is called the "Grand Indian Crossing," because the Comanche and

Apachee Indians ford the stream here in their incursions from Texas into Mexico. The principal town on the river is Brownsville, 40 miles from its mouth, and opposite the Mexican city of Mattamoras.

THE COLORADO RIVER,

Or, as it is sometimes called, the Great Colorado of the West, to distinguish it from the Colorado River, of Texas, rises in latitude 44° N., in Idaho Territory, and, flowing through Utah Territory, and along the borders of Nevada, California, and Arizona, empties into the Gulf of California, near latitude $32^{\circ} 30'$ N. From its source to the 36th parallel of North latitude, where it is joined by the Grand and Little Colorado Rivers, it is known as the Green River. It has several small tributaries between its source and the Great South Pass. At this pass, it receives the Big Sandy Creek, at an elevation of 7489 feet above the sea. Just on the other side of the mountains are the Wind and Sweetwater Rivers, two of the principal tributaries of the Upper Missouri. From the South Pass, the Colorado flows in a generally southwest direction to its mouth. It is about 1200 miles long, and, with the exception of the Columbia, is the most important stream west of the Rocky Mountains, but, in spite of its great length, the volume of water which it discharges is comparatively small.

"About 490 miles above its mouth commences the great defile in the mountains called the Black Cañon, 25 miles long, through which the river has forced its way. The banks in many places are very precipitous, from 1000 to 1500 feet high, and for a long distance the river is unapproachable. A steamboat under the command of Lieut. Ives, U. S. Topographical Engineers, ascended the stream early in 1858, and passing a portion of the great cañon reached the head of navigation at the head of Virgen River. Few obstacles except shifting sand bars were met on the voyage. The explorations of Lieut. Ives, who traversed the valley of the river from its mouth to latitude 36° N., and the greater part of the regions along latitude 35° and 36° as far east as the Rio Grande, and the previous reconnoissances connected with the surveys for a railway to the Pacific, have made known interesting facts connected with the region watered by the Colorado. In its valley is found a large extent of fertile bottom land, easily cultivated by artificial irrigation. This valley varies in width from three to eight miles. The greater part of it is covered with timber, chiefly cottonwood and mezquit. Other portions are cultivated by the nu-

merous tribes of Indians who live along its banks, affording them an abundance of wheat, maize, melons, beans, squashes, etc. Cotton is also cultivated by such of the Pueblo Indians as are acquainted with the art of weaving. Some portions of the country are uninhabitable; others are rich in silver, copper, and lead, besides containing gold and mercury in small quantities. According to an estimate made by the U. S. officers who have explored the Colorado, there are about 700 square miles of arable land between the mouth of the Gila and the 35th parallel of North latitude. After receiving the Gila, the Colorado takes a sudden turn westward, forcing its way through a chain of rocky hills, 70 feet high, and about 350 yards in length. In this passage it is about 600 feet wide, but soon expands to 1200 feet, which it retains. After sweeping around 7 or 8 miles, it assumes a south direction, and with a very tortuous course of nearly 160 miles reaches the Gulf of California. The bottom lands are here from 4 to 5 miles wide, and covered with a thick forest. On a rocky eminence at the junction with the Gila stands Fort Yuma. Near the fort are the remains of the buildings of the old Spanish Mission established here in the early part of the last century, and in the valley are traces of irrigating canals, which show that it has once been cultivated." *

The average depth of water between Fort Yuma and the Gulf of California is 8 feet. Spring tides rise 25 or 30 feet, and neap tides 10 feet. There is regular communication by means of small steamers between Fort Yuma and the mouth of the river. At low water there is a draught of 4 feet at the Fort, and in high water 13 feet. The channel at the mouth of the river is continually changing, and has been known to shift from one bank to another in the course of a single night. There is also a heavy tidal wave at its mouth, which renders it difficult and dangerous for any but the lightest draught steamers to enter the stream. When the freshets occur, the river overflows its banks, submerges a part of the California Desert, and fills up several basins, and what is known as New River. This water is left in the basins and New River when the main stream returns to its proper channel, and continues in them for about two years, when it is absorbed by the soil, or dried up by the sun.

The mouth of the Colorado was discovered in the year 1540, by Fernando Alarchon, who undertook a voyage to the Gulf of California, by order of the Viceroy of Spain. He described it as "a very mighty river, which ran with so great a fury of stream that we could!

* Appleton's Cyclopædia, vol. v. p. 502.

hardly sail against it." He sent an expedition, consisting of two boats, some distance up the river. In 1700, a Mission was established by Father Kino near the site of the present Fort Yuma, at the mouth of the Gila.

The name of the Colorado signifies "the Red River," its waters being stained by the red earth along its course. Its principal tributaries are the Grand, San Juan, White, Little Colorado, Virgen, Williams, and Gila Rivers. The Mohavé was formerly supposed to be a tributary, but is now known to empty into Soda Lake, in California.

THE COLUMBIA RIVER

Is the principal body of water flowing into the Pacific Ocean from the Continent of America. It rises in a small lake on the western slope of the Rocky Mountains, about latitude 50° N., longitude 116° W. Its first course is towards the northwest, along the base of the Rocky Mountains, until it is joined by its most northern tributary, in about $53^{\circ} 30'$ N. latitude, after which it flows in a southerly direction to the 46th parallel. From this point to the Pacific it runs due west, forming the boundary between the State of Oregon and Washington Territory. It is extremely tortuous between the 46th and 48th parallels of North latitude. This is the case until Fort Wallawalla is reached. It is very rapid, and frequently passes through mountain gorges and over falls. The tide ascends to the foot of the Cascades, 140 miles from the sea. The Cascades are a series of rapids caused by the passage of the river through the Cascade range of mountains. Between each of the rapids there is an unbroken stretch of the river for about 25 or 30 miles. Steamers ply on the lower river, on the clear waters between the Cascades, and for some distance above the last fall. Passengers and freights are carried around the falls by railroad. Vessels of 200 or 300 tons burthen navigate the stream to the foot of the Cascades. For 30 miles from its mouth, the Columbia forms a splendid bay from 3 to 7 miles in breadth, through which it discharges its waters into the Pacific. There is about 20 feet water on the bar at its mouth, but the depth of the channel is 24 feet.

The principal tributaries of the Columbia are the Lewis and Clark Forks, which, uniting, form the main river, the McGillivray's, or Flat Bow River, Okonagan, Fall River, Wallawalla, and Willamette. The Lewis Fork is sometimes called the Snake River, and the Clark Fork, the Flathead River. The total length of the Columbia, from its source to the sea, is about 1200 miles.



RAPIDS OF THE ST. LAWRENCE.

THE SAINT LAWRENCE RIVER

Forms a portion of the boundary between the United States and the Canadas, and though washing the shores of the Union for but a part of its course, cannot be passed over in this chapter. Some geographers, in consequence of its forming the outlet of the chain of lakes upon the northern frontier of the Union, regard it as commencing at the source of the St. Louis, which rises in Minnesota and flows into Lake Superior. Viewed in this light, it flows through the great lakes, and its total length from the head of the St. Louis to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, would be 2200 miles. Its course to the head of Lake Erie would be in a generally southeast direction; and from the head of Lake Erie to the sea, in a generally northeast direction. Viewing it in this light, we must regard the Ste. Marie, between Lakes Huron and Superior; the St. Clair and Detroit, between Lakes Huron and Erie; and the Niagara, between Lakes Erie and Ontario, as forming parts of the St. Lawrence. By the St. Lawrence River, however, is most commonly meant that portion of it lying between Lake Ontario and the Gulf of St. Lawrence. This constitutes a large river 750 miles long, having an average breadth of half a mile, and

navigable for steamers to the Gulf. Ships of the line ascend to Quebec, and vessels of 600 tons to Montreal, in Canada. Above Montreal the navigation is interrupted by numerous rapids, around which a canal has been cut. The river forms the boundary of the United States from the foot of Lake Ontario to the extreme northwestern corner of the State of New York. Ogdensburg and Cape Vincent are the principal American towns on its banks.

LAKES.

The principal lakes of the United States, are Lakes Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, Ontario, and Champlain, lying along the northern frontier, and the Great Salt Lake, in Utah Territory.

LAKE SUPERIOR

Is the largest body of fresh water in the world, and the principal of the chain of great lakes extending along the northern boundary of the United States. It lies between latitude $46^{\circ} 30'$ and 49° N., and longitude $84^{\circ} 50'$ and $92^{\circ} 10'$ W. It forms a species of crescent, with its convexity on the north, and its concavity on the south. Its greatest length, from east to west, measured through the curve, is 420 miles, and its greatest breadth, from north to south, 160 miles. The total length of its coast line is about 1750 miles. It covers an area estimated at 32,000 square miles. It is 630 feet above the level of the sea, and has an average depth of one thousand feet. Its shape is very irregular. It is very wide at its centre, but narrows slightly towards its eastern end, and very much towards its western end.

The shore on the north side is bold and rocky, and consists of almost continuous ranges of cliffs, which rise to a height varying from 300 to 1500 feet. The south shore is flat and sandy, as a general rule, but near the eastern side is broken by limestone ridges, which rise to a height of near 300 feet, in strange and fantastic forms, worn into numerous caverns. These have been cut by the action of the great waves, especially during the season of the floating ice, and have been colored by the continual drippings of mineral substances. From the earliest times they have been known as the "Pictured Rocks." They lie to the east of Point Keweenaw, and form one of the most wonderful of the natural curiosities of the New World. Islands are very numerous towards the south and north shores, but the centre of the lake is free from them. The islands towards the south

are generally small, but those along the north shore are often of considerable size. The largest is Isle Royal, which is about 40 miles long, and 7 or 8 miles wide. Its hills rise to a height of 400 feet, with fine bold shores on the north, and several excellent bays on the south. Near the western end of the lake is a rocky, forest-covered group, called the Apostles' Islands. They are exceedingly picturesque in appearance, and form a prominent and interesting portion of the scenery of the lake. On the extreme southwestern end of the largest, is La Pointe, a famous fur trading post, and well known as the principal rendezvous for the hardy adventurers of the lake region.

Lake Superior receives its waters from more than 200 streams, about 30 of which are of considerable size. These drain an area of 100,000 square miles, and furnish the lake with water remarkable for its clearness, and abounding in fish of various kinds, but especially in trout, white fish, and salmon. The rivers are almost all unfit for navigation, by reason of their tremendous currents, rapids, and rocks. The outlet of the lake is at the southeastern end, by means of St. Mary's Strait, or as it is sometimes called, St. Mary's River, which connects it with Lake Huron and the other great lakes. This strait is about 63 miles long, and enters Lake Huron by three channels. It is very beautiful and romantic in its scenery, at some places spreading out into small lakes, and at others rushing in foaming torrents over the rocks that seek to bar its way, or winding around beautiful islands. It is navigable for vessels drawing eight feet of water, from Lake Huron to within one mile of Lake Superior, at which point falls obstruct the navigation. This part of the strait is called the *Sault Ste. Marie*. A canal has been constructed by the General Government around the rapids. It is 100 feet wide and 12 feet deep, and affords unbroken communication between Lakes Superior and Huron. The falls have a descent of 22 feet in three-fourths of a mile, and are exceedingly beautiful. The strait also separates the State of Michigan from Canada West.

The greatest obstacles to the navigation of the lake are the violent storms that sweep over it. Until very recently it was an almost unknown region, but now there is constant steamboat communication along its entire length, and it is frequently visited by persons in search of pleasure or health.

The principal export of the lake is copper, which is found in large quantities, and of a superior quality, along its shores. The total shipments of this metal, from the period of its discovery on the lake down to the close of the year 1871, amounted to over \$30,000,000.

Fond du Lac, and Duluth, at the western end of the lake, are the principal settlements on its shores.

For many years the savage settlements along the lake were mere fishing villages, and even at the period of its discovery, the Indians had made but few lodgments here. Attention was first drawn to it by its valuable fur trade, and the early Jesuit missionaries reached it about the year 1641. They established their first mission at the head of the Bay of Pentanguishene (in Georgian Bay), and passed up in a canoe to the Sault Ste. Marie, where they found a village of 2000 Chippewa Indians, and heard from them of the great lake beyond, which was explored by the missionaries about 20 years later. In 1668, a permanent mission was established at the Sault Ste. Marie, and in 1671, the region was formally taken possession of in the name of the King of France. The mines were first worked in 1771 and 1772, by an Englishman named Alexander Henry, whose enterprise proved unprofitable. General Lewis Cass, by order of the Government of the United States, explored the region in 1820, and since then it has been growing in importance, and has yearly become better known to the people of the country at large.

LAKE HURON

Is the third in size of the great inland seas we are describing. It lies between latitude 43° and $46^{\circ} 15' N.$, and longitude 80° and $84^{\circ} W.$ It receives the waters of Lake Superior by the St. Mary's River, and of Lake Michigan by the Straits of Mackinaw, and empties into Lake Erie by the St. Clair River. It is bounded on the S. S. W. by the State of Michigan, and on all other sides by Canada West. A long peninsula called Cabot's Head, and the Manitouline chain of islands divide it into two unequal portions. Those portions lying to the north and east are generally called Manitou (the Great Spirit) Lake, or the North Channel, and Manitouline Lake, or Georgian Bay. The general outline of the rest of the lake is in the form of a crescent, pursuing a S. S. E. and N. N. W. course. Its extreme length, following the curve, is about 280 miles. Its greatest breadth, exclusive of Georgian Bay, is 105 miles. Its average breadth is about 70 miles, and it covers an area of 20,400 square miles. The surface of the water is elevated 19 feet above Lake Erie, 352 feet above Ontario, and 600 feet above the level of the sea. Its average depth is over 1000 feet. Off Saginaw Bay, which indents the coast of Michigan, leads have been sunk 1800 feet without finding the bottom.

The waters of the lake are remarkably pure and sweet, and so exceedingly transparent that objects can be distinctly seen 50 or 60 feet below the surface. The lake is said to contain upwards of 3000 islands. It is subject to frequent fearful storms, but its navigation is not considered dangerous. Steamers ply between its various ports, and pass through the Straits of Mackinaw into Lake Michigan. There are many fine harbors on the coast, and the local trade is important. The scenery is romantic and beautiful, and is much admired by travellers.

The outlet of Lake Huron is by the St. Clair River, which leaves the lake on its southern extremity. It has an average breadth of half a mile. It pursues a southerly course for forty miles, forming a part of the boundary between the United States and Canada, and empties into Lake St. Clair. It is navigable for large vessels.

LAKE ST. CLAIR lies between Canada and the State of Michigan, in latitude $42^{\circ} 30' N.$, longitude $82^{\circ} 3' W.$ It is 30 miles long, has a mean breadth of 12 miles, and is 20 feet deep. It is thickly interspersed with islands, and receives the waters of the Thames, Clinton, and Great Bear Creeks, and other streams. At its southwestern extremity it flows into the Detroit River, which connects it with Lake Erie. This river is in reality a mere strait 25 miles long, and from half a mile to a mile wide. The entire passage between Lakes Huron and Erie is navigable for large vessels.

LAKE MICHIGAN

Lies wholly within the limits of the United States, and is the largest lake included within the territory of the Republic. The greater portion of the lake lies between the State of Michigan, on the east, and Illinois and Wisconsin, on the west; but the upper portion is entirely within the State of Michigan. The lake is situated between $41^{\circ} 30'$ and $46^{\circ} N.$ latitude, and between $85^{\circ} 50'$ and $88^{\circ} W.$ longitude. It bends slightly to the N. E. in the upper part, and its extreme length, following the curve, is about 350 miles; its extreme width 90 miles. It has an average depth of about 900 feet, and covers an area of 20,000 square miles. As a general rule, the shores of the lake are low, and are formed of limestone rock, clay, and sand. The sand thrown on the east shore by the heavy seas which prevail during storms, soon becomes dry, and is carried inland by the winds, where it is piled up in hills to a height of from 10 to 150 feet. The form of these hills is constantly changing. The lake is said to be gradually

moving westward, or, in other words, to be leaving the shore of Michigan, and encroaching upon that of Wisconsin.

There are very few islands in Lake Michigan, and these lie towards its northeastern extremity. It has but few bays on its shores, and still fewer good harbors. Little Traverse Bay, Grand Haven, and Green Bay are the principal. As the lake is subject to terrible storms throughout the year, it is not considered very safe for navigation. Previous to the completion of the railroads, however, its commerce was very great, and several lines of fine steamers ran between Chicago, Illinois, and Buffalo, New York, on Lake Erie. There are many steamers and other craft still on the lake, but the railroads have taken away nearly the entire passenger, and much of the freight business.

Lake Michigan is connected with Huron and the other lakes by the Straits of Mackinaw, or Mackinac. The lake is usually free from ice by the last of March, but the Straits of Mackinaw are frozen over until late in April. Fish abound in the lake, are caught in great quantities near Mackinaw, and are sent to the various parts of the Union, packed in ice.

The principal cities and towns on Lake Michigan, are Chicago, Racine, Milwaukee, and Sheboygan, on the west side, and Michigan City and Grand Haven, on the east side. There are 23 lighthouses and 4 beacons on the lake.

LAKE ERIE

Lies between Canada West, on the north, a part of the States of New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, on the south, Michigan on the west, and New York on the east. It is situated between $41^{\circ} 25'$ and $42^{\circ} 55'$ N. latitude, and between $78^{\circ} 55'$ and $83^{\circ} 34'$ W. longitude. It is elliptical in form, is 240 miles long, has an average width of 38 miles, its greatest width being 57 miles, and has a total circumference or coast line of 658 miles. Its depth is less than that of any of the other great lakes, being only 270 feet in its deepest portion. Its average depth is estimated at 120 feet. It is 322 feet above the level of Lake Ontario, which distance is overcome at a single effort by the falls of the Niagara.

The shallowness of Lake Erie offers a great obstacle to navigation, inasmuch as the shoal portions freeze over regularly every winter. There are scarcely any naturally good harbors on the lake. Those now in use require to be deepened and protected by artificial means. Not-

withstanding the fact that the railroads have drawn off an immense amount of trade, and in spite of the obstacles presented by the lake itself, its commerce is still very great. The trade of the port of Buffalo alone is estimated at over \$85,000,000 annually. The total trade of the lake is over \$220,000,000 annually. A large number of steamers and other vessels are engaged during the season of navigation, which lasts from about the 1st of April to about the 1st of December. The principal harbors on the American side, are those of Cleveland, Sandusky City, Toledo, Buffalo, Erie, and Dunkirk. Those on the Canadian side are Ports Dover, Burwell, and Stanley.

The shores of the lake are in many places of a very unstable nature, and yield easily to the action of the water, causing frequent dangerous "slides," as they are called. Buffalo has suffered considerably from this cause. The waters abound in fish, the principal of which are the trout and white fish. Several species of pike, the sturgeon, sisquit, muskelonge, black bass, white bass, and Oswego bass are found. There are 26 lighthouses and beacons on the American, and 10 on the Canada shore. Communication is maintained between Lakes Erie and Ontario by means of the Welland Canal, which is cut through the Canadian peninsula. The Maumee, Sandusky, Grand, Huron, Raisin, and several other rivers flow into the lake. The most violent storms sweep over it, particularly in the months of November and December, causing many shipwrecks and considerable destruction to life and property.

The outlet is by the Niagara River, which commences at Black Rock, about 4 miles north of Buffalo. It is 34 miles long, and has a general northward course. About 7 miles from Buffalo, the river divides and encloses a large island, called Grand Island, 12 miles long, and from 2 to 7 miles wide. Two or three miles below Grand Island are the famous Falls of Niagara, which will be described in the chapter relating to the State of New York. The river is navigable above the falls from a short distance above the rapids to Lake Erie—nearly 20 miles; and from its mouth to Lewiston, 7 miles. It is spanned by two fine suspension bridges.

On the 10th of September 1813, Commodore Oliver N. Perry, in command of a small American squadron, defeated a British fleet of superior force near Put-in-bay, a harbor among the Bass Islands, near the western end of the lake. This victory completely destroyed the British power along the shores of Michigan.

LAKE ONTARIO

Is the smallest and most easterly of the five great lakes of America, and is situated between latitude $43^{\circ} 10'$ and $44^{\circ} 10' N.$, and between longitude 76° and $80^{\circ} W.$ It runs nearly due east and west, and divides the State of New York on the south from Canada on the north. It is 190 miles long, and its greatest breadth is 55 miles. It covers an area of 5400 square miles, is about 230 feet above the tide water in the St. Lawrence, and has a depth of about 600 feet. It is navigable throughout its entire extent for ships of the line, and has several fine harbors, the principal of which are Oswego and Sackett's Harbor, on the New York shore, and Kingston, Toronto, and Hamilton, in Canada. The lake is rarely closed with ice to any extent, except in the shoal water along the shore, and never freezes over. It receives the waters of the upper lakes through the Niagara, and those of the Genesee, Oswego, and Black Rivers, in the United States. It is connected with Lake Erie by the Welland Canal. It contains a number of islands, the largest of which, Amherst Island, is 10 miles long, and 6 miles broad. The waters of the lake are very clear and abound in a variety of fine salmon, trout, bass, and other fish.

A number of steamers and other vessels are engaged in the lake trade, which is important, amounting to between \$35,000,000 and \$40,000,000 per annum.

During the war of 1812-15, the United States and Great Britain maintained powerful fleets on Lake Ontario, and in the course of the war several severe engagements occurred on the lake between the opposing forces.

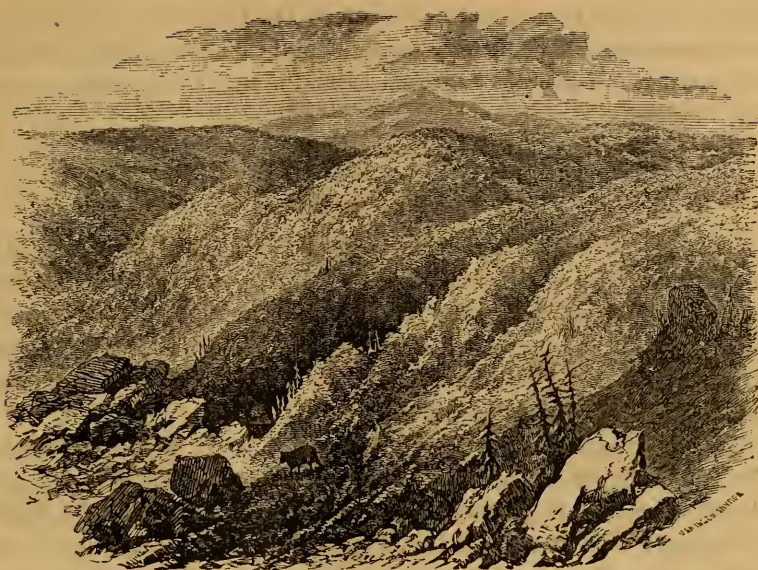
Besides the five great lakes already described, there are a number of others which will be referred to in connection with the States in which they are situated.

MOUNTAINS.

The principal mountain ranges of the United States are the great Alleghany range on the east, and the Rocky Mountains on the west.

THE ALLEGHANY OR APPALACHIAN MOUNTAINS.

This is the general term applied to the vast system of mountains in the southeastern part of North America, extending from Maine to the northern part of Alabama, pursuing in their course a general southwestward direction. As the range passes through different



ALLEGHANY MOUNTAINS.

States, it is called by different names. The distance of this chain from the sea varies along its course. In New Hampshire, near its northern termination, it is less than 100 miles from the ocean, and at its southern end the distance from the sea is 300 miles. In New England and New York the chain is broken and irregular, some of its ranges running almost north and south, but in the States south of New York, the ranges are very continuous, and run for the most part parallel to the main ridge. In common usage, the term Alleghany Mountains applies almost exclusively to that portion of the range lying in and south of the State of Pennsylvania. The White Mountains of New Hampshire, and the Adirondacks of New York, are considered outliers of this great chain, as are also the Catskills, of the latter State.

The entire length of the main range, not counting its lateral groups, is 1300 miles. Its extreme width, which occurs in Pennsylvania and Maryland, about half way in its length, is 100 miles. The highest summits of the Appalachian chain are Mount Mitchell, in North Carolina, 6470 feet, Mount Washington, in New Hampshire, 6226 feet, and Mount Marcy, in New York, 5467 feet, above the level of the sea.

The entire range is rich in the most interesting geological forma-

tions. Nearly all the minerals known to the Continent are found in these mountains. The scenery is grand, and the atmosphere pure and invigorating. Numerous railroads cross the range, or pierce it with their tunnels.

The great western range is known as

THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS.

These are a continuation northward of the Cordilleras of Central America and Mexico. They enter the United States at the southern extremity of New Mexico and Arizona Territories, near latitude $31^{\circ} 30'$ N., and pass up the entire western side of the Republic, into British America. They are divided into several ranges, and cover an area 1000 miles wide from east to west.

The most easterly range extends through New Mexico, Colorado, Wyoming, and Montana Territories, and forms the boundary between Wyoming and Idaho, and Idaho and Montana. It includes the Spanish Peaks, Pike's Peak, and the Wind River Mountains, the last of which contain Fremont's Peak, 13,570 feet high. West of this great range is a smaller one, called the Wahsatch Mountains, lying south of the Great Salt Lake. These mountains, under other names, pass northward, to the east of Salt Lake. In Utah they cover a wide district, and their ridges spread out in various directions. The ridge known as the Uintah Mountains extends east and west.

The western division of the Rocky Mountains enters the State of California from the Peninsula of Old California, and soon breaks into two ranges, the lowest of which, known as the Coast Range, runs parallel to the Pacific Ocean, at a distance of from 10 to 50 miles from the sea until the northern part of California is reached, when it rejoins the higher range, which is called the Sierra Nevada, which runs parallel to the Coast Range, at a distance of 160 miles from the sea. From the point of the reunion of its branches the range pursues its way northward into British America, the two ridges being again divided in Oregon and Washington Territory, the lesser retaining its own name, and the Sierra Nevada being styled the Cascade Range. The summits of the Sierra Nevada are generally above the line of perpetual snow, while the Coast Range has an average height of from 2000 to 3000 feet. Several of its peaks, however, rise to more than double that altitude. Mount Ripley is 7500 feet, and Mount St. John 8000 feet high. Mount Linn is still higher, but its exact altitude has not yet been ascertained. Mount Shasta, at the point of the union of the two ranges in Northern California, is 14,440 feet high.



ROCKY MOUNTAINS.

"Between the highest ridge of the Rocky Mountains on the east, and the Sierra Nevada and Cascade Range on the west, is a vast region of table land, which in its widest part extends through fourteen degrees of longitude; that is about 700 miles from east to west. Humboldt, in his 'Aspects of Nature,' observes that the Rocky Mountains, between 37° and 43° , present lofty plains of an extent hardly met with in any other part of the globe; having a breadth from east to west twice as great as the plateaus of Mexico. In the western part of the great central plateaus above described, lies the Great Basin, otherwise called Fremont's Basin, from its having been first explored by Colonel Fremont. It is situated between the Sierra Nevada and Wahsatch Mountains, and is bounded on every side with high hills or mountains. It is about 500 miles in extent, from east to west, and 350 from north to south. It is known to contain a number of lakes and rivers, none of whose waters ever reach the ocean, being probably taken up by evaporation, or lost in the sand of the more arid districts. As far as known, the lakes of this basin are salt, except Utah Lake. The largest of these, the Great Salt Lake, is filled with a saturated solution of common salt; it has an elevation of 4200 feet above the sea." *

* Lippincott's Gazetteer.

Owing to the broad base and gentle rise of the Rocky Mountain Range, it is crossed with comparatively little difficulty. Its passes are among the finest on the globe, and will vie in grandeur of scenery with any of those of the old world.

We have already spoken of the rivers which rise upon the slopes of this great range, and shall pass them by for the present, to return to them again in other portions of this work.

SOIL.

The soil of the United States "presents almost every variety, from the dry sterile plains in the region of the Great Salt Lake, to the rich alluviums of the Mississippi Valley. It can most conveniently be described by following the seven great divisions indicated by the river system of the country, viz., the St. Lawrence basin, the Atlantic slope, the Mississippi Valley, the Texas slope, the Pacific slope, the inland basin of Utah, sometimes called the Great or Fremont Basin, and the basin of the Red River of the north. 1. The St. Lawrence basin embraces parts of Vermont, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, and all of Michigan; it is an elevated and fertile plain, generally well wooded. 2. The Atlantic slope includes all New England except a part of Vermont; all of New Jersey, Delaware, the District of Columbia, South Carolina, and Florida; and portions of New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. It may be subdivided into two regions, a N. E. section and a S. W. section, separated by the Hudson River. The former is hilly, and generally better adapted to grazing than tillage, though some parts of it are naturally fertile, and a large proportion is carefully cultivated. The S. W. section may be again divided into a coast belt from 30 to 150 miles in width, running from Long Island Sound to the mouth of the Mississippi, and including the whole peninsula of Florida; and an inland slope from the mountains towards this coast belt. The former, as far south as the Roanoke River, is sandy and not naturally fertile, though capable of being made highly productive; from the Roanoke to the Mississippi it is generally swampy, with sandy tracts here and there, and a considerable portion of rich alluvial soil. The inland slope is one of the finest districts in the United States, the soil consisting for the most part of alluvium from the mountains and the decomposed primitive rocks which underlie the surface. 3. The Mississippi Valley occupies more than two-fifths of the area of the



PLOWING A WESTERN PRAIRIE.



LIFE IN NEW ENGLAND, 1776.

Republic, and extends from the Alleghany to the Rocky Mountains, and from the Gulf of Mexico to British North America, thus including parts of New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, New Mexico, Indiana, Ohio, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, and all of Kentucky, Tennessee, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Nebraska, and Kansas, and the Territories north of Nebraska and east of the mountains. It is for the most part a prairie country, of fertility unsurpassed by any region on the globe, except perhaps the Valley of the Amazon. The ground in many places is covered with mould to the depth of several feet, in some instances to the depth of 25 feet. The northwest part of the valley, however, offers a strong contrast to the remainder. There is a desert plateau 200 to 400 miles wide, lying at the base of the Rocky Mountains, at an elevation 2000 to 5000 feet above the sea, part of it incapable of cultivation on account of the deficiency of rain and lack of means of irrigation, and part naturally sterile. 4. The Texas slope includes the southwestern country of the Mississippi Valley, drained by rivers which flow into the Gulf of Mexico, and embracing nearly all of Texas, and portions of Louisiana and New Mexico. It may be divided into three regions: a coast belt from 30 to 60 miles wide, low, level, and very fertile, especially in the river bottoms; a rich, rolling prairie, extending from the coast belt about 150 or 200 miles inland, and admirably suited for grazing; and a lofty table-land in the northwest, utterly destitute of trees, scantily supplied with grass, and during a part of the year parched with complete drought. Almost the only arable land in this section is found in the valleys of the Rio Grande and a few other streams. 5. The Pacific slope, embracing the greater part of California, Oregon, and Washington Territory, and parts of New Mexico and Utah,* is generally sterile. That part, however, between the Coast Range and the ocean, and the valleys between the Coast Range, and the Cascade Range and Sierra Nevada, are very fertile, and the same may be said of a few valleys and slopes among the Wahsatch and Rocky Mountains, though these are better adapted to pasturage than to anything else. 6. The great inland basin of Utah, which includes besides Utah parts of New Mexico, California, Oregon, and Washington, is probably the most desolate portion of the United States. It abounds

* To this add a part of Colorado, and all of Nevada and Idaho, formerly included in Oregon, and in Utah and Washington Territories.

in salt lakes, and there are only a few valleys where the soil acquires by irrigation enough fertility to afford a support for man. 7. That portion of the basin of the Red River of the north which belongs to the United States is confined to the small tract in the northern part of Dacotah and Minnesota; it contains some very productive lands, especially in the river bottoms." *

CLIMATE.

The climate of the United States is varied. It could not possibly be uniform in a country presenting such a wide diversity of physical features in its various parts. In Florida, the thermometer does not vary over twelve degrees during the year, but in the remainder of the country the climate is exceedingly variable, and the changes are sudden and severe, often ranging over thirty degrees in the course of a few hours. Alternations from rain to drought are also as common and severe as those from heat to cold and from cold to heat. The summers are always hot. The thermometer frequently ranges as high as 110° F. In the North, however, the hot weather does not continue in full vigor for more than a few days at a time, and in the South, the heat is seldom so extreme, though it continues for a longer time. California has a climate as mild as that of Italy, but the North-Eastern States are swept by the chill winds from the Atlantic and the ice fields of British America. The great lakes mitigate to a considerable extent the temperature of the country around them. A similar effect is produced upon the temperature of their surrounding regions by the elevated plains of New Mexico, Utah, and Oregon. The following table shows the average temperature of each of the seasons of the year on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts and in the interior :

PLACE OF OBSERVATION.	Latitude.	Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.	Winter.	Year.
Fortress Monroe (near Norfolk, Va.).....	37°	56-87°	76-87°	61-68°	40-45°	58-89°
Fort Columbus (New York Harbor).....	40° 42'	48-74°	72-10°	54-55°	31-38°	51-69°
Fort Sullivan (Eastport, Maine).....	44° 15'	40-15°	60-50°	47-52°	23-90°	43-02°
St. Louis, Missouri.....	38° 40'	54-15°	76-19°	55-44°	32-27°	54-51°
Chicago, Illinois.....	41° 52'	44-90°	67-33°	48-85°	25-90°	46-75°
Fort Ripley, Minnesota.....	46° 19'	39-33°	64-94°	42-91°	10-01°	39-30°
Monterey, California.....	36° 36'	53-99°	58-64°	57-20°	51-22°	55-20°
San Francisco, California.....	37° 48'	54-41°	57-35°	56-85°	50-86°	54-88°
† Astoria, Oregon.....	46° 11'	51-16°	61-5°	53-76°	42-43°	52-23°

* Appleton's Cyclopædia, vol. xv. p. 716. † Id. p. 717.

Rain is abundant in nearly all parts of the Union, and is distributed over the country in a very nearly equal degree throughout the year. In the Atlantic States south of Washington City, the fall is less regular than in the States north of the Capital, but is more plentiful than in the latter, and occurs more frequently in summer than in winter. On the Pacific coast, the fall of rain is periodical, occurring chiefly in the winter and spring, and south of the fortieth parallel of North latitude, in the autumn also. Very little rain falls between the Cascade Range and the one-hundredth meridian of West longitude. When rain does visit this region, it comes in violent showers, which are especially severe in the mountains. The annual fall in the desert region through which the Colorado flows, is estimated at 3 inches; in the great plain south of the Columbia River, 10 inches; in the desert east of the Rocky Mountains, from 15 to 20 inches. Scarcely any of this falls in the summer.*

Snow falls in the Northern States to a considerable depth. In the Lake Superior country, more or less snow falls every day during the winter, and remains on the ground until the spring. It is comparatively rare south of the James River, in Virginia, and does not remain on the ground very long. In the Gulf States, it is scarcely ever seen except in the extreme northern portion.

The most dangerous local diseases, of the New England and Middle States, are pulmonary complaints; of the Southern States, bilious fevers, and yellow fever along the Gulf coast; of the Western States, intermittent and bilious fevers, and dysentery. The "fever and ague" prevails chiefly in new regions, and disappears as they become thickly settled.

The following table, taken from the eighth census of the United States, will show the ratio of mortality in each State, for the year ending June 1st, 1860:

* Appleton's Cyclopædia.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Annual Deaths.	Population to one death.	Deaths, Per cent.
Alabama.....	12,759	74	1.34
Arkansas.....	8,885	48	2.06
California.....	3,704	101	0.99
Connecticut.....	6,138	71	1.35
Delaware.....	1,246	89	1.13
Florida.....	1,764	78	1.28
Georgia.....	12,816	81	1.23
Illinois.....	19,299	87	1.14
Indiana.....	15,325	87	1.15
Iowa.....	7,259	92	1.09
Kansas.....	1,443	73	1.37
Kentucky.....	16,466	69	1.45
Louisiana.....	12,234	57	1.76
Maine.....	7,614	81	1.23
Maryland.....	7,370	92	1.09
Massachusetts.....	21,303	57	1.76
Michigan.....	7,390	100	1.00
Minnesota.....	1,108	153	0.65
Mississippi.....	12,213	64	1.57
Missouri.....	17,652	66	1.52
New Hampshire.....	4,469	72	1.39
New Jersey.....	7,525	88	1.14
New York.....	46,881	82	1.22
North Carolina.....	11,602	84	1.19
Ohio.....	24,724	93	1.07
Oregon.....	237	218	0.46
Pennsylvania.....	30,214	95	1.06
Rhode Island.....	2,479	69	1.44
South Carolina.....	9,745	71	1.41
Tennessee.....	15,153	72	1.39
Texas.....	9,377	63	1.58
Vermont.....	3,355	92	1.08
Virginia.....	22,472	70	1.43
Wisconsin.....	7,141	107	0.93
Colorado.....			
Dacotah.....	4		
Nebraska.....	381	75	1.34
Nevada.....			
New Mexico.....	1,205	71	1.42
Utah.....	374	106	0.94
Washington.....	50	223	0.44
District of Columbia.....	1,285	58	1.72
Total, United States.....	392,821	79	1.27

From this table, it will be seen that Washington Territory is the first in point of healthfulness, Oregon second, Minnesota third, Wisconsin fourth, Utah fifth, California sixth, Massachusetts twenty-ninth, and Arkansas thirtieth.

MINERAL WEALTH.

The mineral productions of the United States are varied and extensive. Coal exists in all the States except Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Delaware, South Carolina, Mississippi, and Wisconsin. Three distinct qualities are found—anthracite, bituminous and semi-bituminous. In 1870, the production amounted to—

Of anthracite 15,664,275 tons.

Of bituminous 17,199,415 “

Total 32,863,690 “

There are valuable and extensive beds of marl in Maine, New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia and several other States. Salt springs, some

of them of very great strength and value, are found in New York, Michigan, Virginia, Kentucky, and Arkansas. Nitrates of soda and potassa are found in the caves of Virginia, Kentucky, and Arkansas, while the plains of the great American desert and the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains furnish considerable quantities of nitrate and carbonate of soda. Gypsum, or sulphate of lime, is found in Maine, Maryland, and Texas, and in portions of New Mexico and Arizona. Marble, of every variety required for building, exists in nearly all the States. In those bordering on the Mississippi, a fine, compact carbonate of lime supplies its place. Iron exists in every State and Territory, and in every form known, from the bog ore, which contains about 20 per cent. of iron, to the pure metal. In the year 1870, the total product of iron ore taken from the mines was estimated at 3,395,718 tons. Of this amount, Pennsylvania produced 1,095,486 tons. There are small quantities of lead in a large number of the States; but Missouri, Arkansas, Wisconsin, Iowa, and Illinois alone contain the great lead deposits of the country. An incomplete return for 1870 places the value of the lead production of the Union at \$736,004. The great copper region of the Union lies along the shores of Lake Superior, but the metal has been found in considerable quantities in Connecticut, New Jersey, Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia, and Tennessee. The ore found in the Lake Superior region yields from 71 to 90 per cent. of pure copper. The total product for 1870 was 20,000 tons, valued at \$5,201,312. Zinc is found in Pennsylvania and New Jersey—the yield in the whole Union in 1870 being valued at \$790,000. Tin is found in Maine to some extent, and also in California. Silver is found in connection with almost all the deposits of lead and copper; and in Nevada, Arizona and New Mexico, extensive veins of a fine quality exist. These are being well worked, but at present there is no accurate return of the total products of the mines. Silver also exists in California, North Carolina and Colorado. Small quantities of gold exist in Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Alabama, and Tennessee. The gold veins are more important in Virginia and Georgia, which formerly furnished the greater part of the gold found in the United States. The mines of the Atlantic States, however, are comparatively neglected at present for those of the Pacific States. Immense deposits of gold exist in California, Oregon, Washington, Nevada, Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, and Dakota. Platinum and mercury are also found in California—the former in small quantities, but the yield of the latter is so great as to

almost supply the demand for it for mining purposes. Osmium and iridium have been discovered in Oregon. They are used in manufacturing gold pens. Cobalt is found in North Carolina and Missouri. Pennsylvania, in 1860, yielded 2348 tons of nickel. Chromium exists in Vermont, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland; and Vermont, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and South Carolina supply considerable quantities of manganese.

PRODUCTS OF THE SOIL.

The native vegetation of the United States is too vast and varied to admit of a description here. We can only say that it covers a wide range of plants and trees, from the giant trees of California to the tiniest flower that blooms on the hill side. Nearly all the principal productions of the frigid, temperate and torrid zones are found within the limits of the Republic. None of the great staples of food are natives of the country, but have been brought from other lands. It must be admitted, however, that they have been greatly benefited by the change, and many of them are produced here in finer qualities than in their old homes. Cucumbers, melons, squashes, and all the edible *Cucurbitaceæ* are importations. So are the most of the fruits, especially the apple, pear, plum, quince, and apricot. The edible berries, such as the strawberry, blackberry, raspberry, whortleberry, bilberry, cloudberry, etc., are natives of the soil. Cotton, flax, and hemp are naturalized plants.

ANIMALS.

The zoology of the United States includes all the animals found on the North American Continent. Of bats, there are three genera and eleven species. The largest of the *Sarcophaga* or *Carnivora*, is the cougar or catamount, which ranks next to the lion and Bengal tiger in ferocity and strength. This animal is sometimes called the American panther, an erroneous appellation, as the panther is not a native of this country. The wild cat or bay lynx, and the Canadian lynx are found. The entire monkey tribe is lacking. There are seven species of the fox—the common red, the cross fox, the black or silver, the prairie, swift, gray, and short-tailed fox. The wolves are divided into two distinct species, the gray wolf of the woods, (divided into the reddish, black, and giant wolf,) a cowardly animal, and the ferocious prairie wolf, which resembles the jackal of the East. The

Digitigrada consist of the pine marten or American sable, the American fisher, the American ermine, the weasel, and two species of mink. The black, and the grisly bear, the badger, wolverene, skunk, and raccoon are found in various parts of the country. Several varieties of the seal family exist. The deer, the antelope, the Rocky Mountain or big horn sheep, also abound. The bison, which is usually but incorrectly called the buffalo, is found in the far West. Nearly all the birds, fish, reptiles, and insects of America are found in the various parts of the Union.

“The domestic animals of the United States have been, with one or two exceptions, introduced from Europe. The horse, though not native to this continent, became wild at an early period, and now roams in large herds in the plains of Texas, but is domesticated without great difficulty. There have been at different times stocks introduced from England, France, Spain, and some from Morocco and Arabia; much attention has been paid to the breeding of these animals, and some of them have not been surpassed in speed or other good points. The asses are mainly from Spain and Malta; the cattle from Great Britain; the goats from the south of Europe, though some efforts have been made to introduce Asiatic species; and the sheep from the Southdown, Saxon, and Spanish Merino breeds. The swine are of various stocks; one breed, common in Central and Western Virginia and other mountainous districts, is tall, long, and gaunt, and of ferocious nature and uncertain origin; but the most common breeds are the Berkshire (English) and Chinese, and crosses upon these. Our domestic dogs and cats are, with few exceptions, of European origin. The brown or Norway rat was an importation from the country whose name it bears, but has now been nearly destroyed by a more powerful and ferocious black rat, said to be from the south of Europe. Efforts have been made, but with no very satisfactory result, to introduce the llama of South America into our mountainous districts. The attempt to acclimate the Bactrian camel in Texas and California, gives promise of greater success.”*

CHARACTERISTICS OF POPULATION.

The people of the United States consist of representatives of every nation in Europe, and of many in Asia and Africa. For a long time after the Revolution the characteristics impressed upon certain parts

* Appleton's Cyclopædia, vol. xv. p. 726.

of the country by the original settlers remained in their full force with their descendants, but at present the rush of emigration has been so great from all parts of Europe, that these have been either very much weakened or entirely destroyed.

The New England States were originally settled by the Puritans, and to the present day still retain many of the strongest of the peculiarities of their forefathers. The gradual but steady increase of their Irish population is working great changes, however, in these States. The city of Boston is being especially affected in this manner. New York was settled by emigrants from Holland, and though the eastern portion of the State has scarcely any traces of its origin left, the interior possesses still many communities, which not only retain very many of the customs and characteristics of the old settlers, but in which, until a very recent period, the Dutch language was spoken to a considerable extent by those born on the soil. Maryland was settled by Catholics, who have not yet lost their controlling influence in the State. Delaware and New Jersey were settled by the Swedes. Pennsylvania was colonized by English Quakers, who were followed by many German families. The descendants of these classes still control the State—the Quakers, as of old, living in the eastern, and the Germans in the southwestern, western, and central portions. Virginia was settled by the English, who were followed by many French Huguenots and Germans. These settled in three distinct parts of the State—the first settlers along the Chesapeake Bay and its tributaries, the French along the Upper James, above the falls, and the Germans in the rich valley of the Shenandoah. These distinctions were strongly preserved as late as the period of the rebellion. North Carolina was settled by non-conformists from Virginia. South Carolina, by English Churchmen and French Huguenots, who had not lost the control of the State at the time of the rebellion. Georgia by English prisoners for debt, followed by other classes from the mother country. Louisiana was settled by the French, and was inhabited chiefly by them when purchased from the French crown. Texas and California were originally Spanish, and, to a great extent, are still so. The latter State has a strong Chinese element in it. Florida was originally Spanish, and still retains its original characteristics along the Gulf Coast. The other States and the Territories were settled by adventurers from the older portions of the country, and by emigrants from Europe, who still continue to flock to our shores in great numbers. The following tables will show the number

of arrivals of emigrants in this country for a period of fifty-one years, or from January 1st, 1820, to September 30th, 1870, their nationalities and destinations:

<i>Wholly or mainly of English Speech.</i>	<i>Wholly or mainly of Slavic Races.</i>	<i>Wholly or mainly of Asiatic Races.</i>
England 501,316	Russia 2,930	Miquelon 3
Ireland 1,406,030	Poland 3,955	Corsica 11
Scotland 82,403	Hungary 488	Sicily 675
Wales 12,213	Total Slavic 7,373	Total French, etc. 377,889
Other Great Britain 1,824,078	<i>Wholly or mainly French, Spanish, Portuguese and Italian.</i>	<i>Wholly or mainly of Asiatic Races.</i>
British America 271,185	France 245,147	China 108,610
Australia 246	Spain 23,096	Japan 215
Azores 6,636	Portugal 4,416	India 178
Bermudas 61	Italy 23,387	Arabia 33
St. Helena 33	Sardinia 2,103	Syria 4
Cape of Good Hope 88	Mexico 20,039	Persia 14
New Zealand 17	Central America 1,067	Asia (general) 24
Sandwich Islands 35	Guiana 53	East India Islands 79
Malta 127	Venezuela 40	Society Islands 7
Jamaica 85	Peru 36	Pacific Islands 5
Total English speech 4,104,553	Chili 28	Total Asiatic 109,169
<i>Wholly or mainly of Germanic and Scandinavian Speech.</i>	Brazil 45	<i>Wholly or mainly of African Nations, with Turkey and Greece.</i>
Germany 2,250,822	Buenos Ayres 7	Liberia 64
Prussia 100,983	Bolivia 3	Egypt 20
Austria 7,904	New Granada 2	Abyssinia 5
Sweden and Norway 151,104	Paraguay 1	Africa (general) 471
Denmark 23,221	Other South America 7,407	Barbary States 11
Holland 30,905	Cuba 3,960	Turkey 299
Belgium 16,850	Haiti 81	Greece 195
Switzerland 61,269	Porto Rico 50	Total, Africa, etc. 1,065
Iceland 11	Other West Indies 45,458	From countries not specified 205,807
Total Germanic 2,643,069	Cape de Verdes 71	Aggregate since 1820 7,448,925
	Madeira 313	
	Canaries 290	

NUMBER OF EMIGRANTS IN EACH YEAR.

1820 8,385	1833 58,640	1846 154,416	1859 121,282
1821 9,130	1834 65,365	1847 234,968	1860 153,640
1822 6,911	1835 45,374	1848 226,527	1861 91,920
1823 6,354	1836 76,242	1849 207,041	1862 91,987
1824 7,912	1837 79,340	1850 369,963	1863 176,282
1825 10,199	1838 38,914	1851 379,466	1864 193,418
1826 10,837	1839 68,072	1852 371,003	1865 248,120
1827 18,875	1840 84,006	1853 268,615	1866 318,554
1828 27,382	1841 80,289	1854 427,833	1867 298,358
1829 22,520	1842 104,563	1855 200,877	1868 297,215
1830 23,322	1843 52,496	1856 200,436	1869 385,287
1831 22,633	1844 78,615	1857 251,306	1870 (9 mos.) 285,422
1832 60,482	1845 114,371	1858 123,126	Total 7,448,925

AVOWED DESTINATION OF EMIGRANTS LANDED AT CASTLE GARDEN, FROM AUGUST 1, 1855, TO JANUARY 1, 1870, BEING 2,340,928 PASSENGERS.

<i>Eastern States.</i>	<i>Northwestern States.</i>	<i>Southeastern States.</i>
New York and undecided.. 972,267	Ohio 120,428	Colorado 170
Maine 4,013	Michigan 52,205	New Mexico 50
New Hampshire 2,859	Indiana 29,576	Idaho 32
Vermont 4,405	Illinois 213,315	Dacotah 49
Massachusetts 111,129	Wisconsin 121,660	Montana 33
Rhode Island 21,430	Minnesota 29,360	Utah 23,755
Connecticut 39,169	Iowa 44,286	Wyoming 5
Total Eastern States... 183,005	Missouri 44,309	Total Pacific States..... 47,172
<i>Central States.</i>	Kansas 5,052	
New Jersey 63,109	Nebraska 4,198	
Pennsylvania 224,880	Total Northwest States. 664,389	
Maryland 18,033	<i>Pacific States and Territories.</i>	
Delaware 2,011	Nevada 80	Virginia 8,235
District of Columbia..... 9,129	California 22,823	West Virginia 172
Total Central States... 317,162	Oregon 18	North Carolina 784
	Washington Territory..... 6	South Carolina 1,854
		Georgia 1,623
		Florida 199
		Alabama 577
		Total Southeast. States. 13,444

AVOWED DESTINATION OF EMIGRANTS—*Continued.*

<i>Southwestern States.</i>		<i>Other Places.</i>			
Missouri.....	44,309	Canada.....	50,828	Australia.....	13
Kentucky.....	11,657	New Brunswick.....	1,028	Bermuda.....	2
Tennessee.....	4,171	New Dominion.....	816	Sandwich Islands.....	1
Arkansas.....	302	South America.....	556	Russian America.....	1
Mississippi.....	603	Cuba.....	349	British Columbia.....	466
Louisiana.....	4,353	Mexico.....	210	Japan.....	1
Texas.....	1,522	West Indies.....	141	China.....	6
Total Southwest. States.	66,917	Central America.....	113	Unknown.....	22,035
		Vancouver's Island.....	6	Total.....	76,572

Previous to 1820, no exact account was kept of the arrivals of emigrants from foreign countries; but as near as can be ascertained, the number was as follows:

From 1790 to 1800	50,000
" 1800 " 1810	70,000
" 1810 " 1820	114,000
Total	234,000

This added to the number of emigrants since 1820, gives a total number of 7,682,925 emigrants since the formation of the Federal Government. Since 1871, the number of arrivals has been unusually small, the "hard times" and other causes having operated to decrease emigration.

AGRICULTURE.

Agriculture is the principal interest of the United States, and is growing in importance every year. A brief glance at each of the great staples in detail will be interesting and useful.

Maize, or Indian Corn. Maize is the principal production of the United States, and is cultivated in every State and Territory of the Republic. It is best adapted to the soil and climate of the country, and furnishes the largest amount of nutritive food. It is generally a sure crop where it is properly cultivated. The method of cultivation is substantially that of the Indians, from whom the white settlers learned it in 1608, in which year they first planted it in the vicinity of Jamestown. At present the yield varies from 20 to 135 bushels to the acre. In 1870, the total product of the country amounted to 769,944,549 bushels. The States which produced the greatest number of bushels that year, stand as follows: Illinois, 129,921,395 bushels; Missouri, 66,034,075 bushels; Ohio, 67,501,144 bushels; Indiana, 51,094,538 bushels; Kentucky, 50,091,006 bushels; Tennessee, 41,343,614 bushels; and Iowa, 68,935,065 bushels. The

product of the other States ranged from 9000 to 60,000,000 bushels. The first was the yield of Nevada, the smallest of all.

Wheat. This grain ranks next to Indian Corn in importance, and when the climate and soil are adapted to its growth, is preferred by the American farmer to all others. Considerable care is exercised in its culture, and the greatest ingenuity has been displayed in the effort to improve the means of cultivation, and with best results. The wheat region of the United States, east of the Rocky Mountains, is situated between the 30th and 50th parallels of North latitude. On the Pacific coast, however, it extends several degrees farther north. As a general rule the wheat of America, especially that of the great wheat producing States of the Atlantic coast, is superior to any other in the world. At the London Exhibition, wheat from Genesee County, New York, won the prize medal from the Royal Commissioners. The total yield of wheat for 1870 amounted to 287,745,626 bushels. The product of the principal wheat producing States was as follows: Illinois, 30,128,405 bushels; Wisconsin, 25,616,344 bushels; Iowa, 29,435,692 bushels; Indiana, 27,747,222 bushels; Ohio, 27,882,159 bushels; California, 16,676,702 bushels; and Pennsylvania, 19,672,967 bushels.

Rye is raised in all the States, but principally in the Eastern and Middle States. Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey produce more than half the quantity raised in the whole country. There is a decided increase in the Western States, and in Maryland and Delaware. In the New England States it has decreased. The total product for 1870 was 16,918,795 bushels. Pennsylvania raised 3,577,641 bushels; New York, 2,478,125 bushels; New Jersey, 566,775 bushels; and Wisconsin, 1,325,294 bushels.

Barley is grown in the Atlantic States, between the 30th and 50th degrees of North latitude, and on the Pacific coast between the 20th and 62nd degrees of North latitude. The two-rowed barley is principally cultivated because of the fulness of its grain, and its exemption from smut. It yields from 30 to 50 bushels to the acre, and will average about 50 pounds to the bushel. Very little of it is exported, as nearly the whole crop is used at home for the manufacture of beer, ale, etc. The demand for it is increasing. The crop of 1870 amounted to 29,761,305 bushels, or more than five times the amount produced in 1850. The States yielded as follows: California, 8,783,490 bushels; New York, 7,434,621 bushels; Ohio, 1,715,221 bushels; and Wisconsin, 1,645,019 bushels. The smallest yield was that of Florida, 12 bushels.

Buckwheat is raised principally in the New England and Middle States. The average yield is from 30 to 45 bushels to the acre, though in some good soils it has yielded as much as 60 bushels. The crop of 1870 amounted to 9,821,721 bushels. Pennsylvania produced 2,532,173 bushels; New York, 3,904,030 bushels; and Ohio, 180,341 bushels.

Oats. This grain constitutes one of the most important crops of the country, and flourishes in sections where the heat or cold is too great for wheat or rye. It is grown principally in the Northern, Middle, and Western States. The crop of 1870 amounted to 282,107,157 bushels. New York produced 35,293,625 bushels; Pennsylvania, 34,702,006 bushels; Ohio, 25,347,549 bushels; Illinois, 42,780,851 bushels; Wisconsin 20,180,016 bushels; and Iowa, 21,005,142 bushels. The smallest yield was that of Louisiana, 17,782 bushels.

Peas and Beans were largely cultivated by the Indians before the settlement of the country by the whites. At present they are grown as a field crop, principally in the Eastern, Middle, and Southern States. The yield averages from 25 to 40 bushels per acre, weighing about 64 pounds per bushel. The crop of 1870 amounted to 5,746,027 bushels. Mississippi produced 176,417 bushels; Georgia, 410,020 bushels; North Carolina, 532,749 bushels; South Carolina, 460,378 bushels; and New York, 1,152,541 bushels. The smallest yield was that of Nevada, 414 bushels.

Rice was first introduced into Virginia by Sir William Berkeley, in 1647; into the Carolinas in 1694; and into Louisiana in 1718. It is confined chiefly to a few of the extreme Southern States, where the climate is favorable to it, and the supply of water plentiful. The yield is usually from 20 to 60 bushels to the acre, weighing from 45 to 48 pounds to the bushel, when cleaned. The yield for 1870 was 73,635,021 pounds. South Carolina produced 32,304,825 pounds; Georgia, 22,277,380 pounds; Louisiana, 15,854,012 pounds; North Carolina, 2,059,281 pounds; Mississippi, 374,627 pounds; and Alabama, 222,945 pounds. It has been grown in Illinois, California, Missouri, Kentucky, New York, and Virginia, though of an inferior quality.

Potatoes. The Irish or White Potato ranks next to wheat and corn in the industry of the Republic. The yield depends upon the soil and climate, and the manner of cultivation, and varies from 50 to 400 bushels, the average being less than 200 bushels to the acre. It

suffers frequently from the "rot." The crop of 1870 amounted to 143,337,473 bushels. New York produced 28,547,593 bushels; Pennsylvania, 12,889,367 bushels; Ohio, 11,192,814 bushels; and Illinois, 10,994,790 bushels; Indiana, 5,399,044 bushels; Massachusetts, 3,025,446 bushels; Michigan, 10,318,799 bushels; New Hampshire, 4,515,419 bushels; New Jersey, 4,705,439 bushels; Vermont, 5,157,428 bushels; and Wisconsin, 6,646,129 bushels.

Sweet Potatoes. The sweet potato is a native of the East Indies, and was introduced into the Colonies soon after the settlement of Virginia. It is now extensively cultivated in the Southern and Western States. The crop of 1870 amounted to 21,709,824 bushels. Georgia produced 2,621,562 bushels; North Carolina, 3,071,840 bushels; Alabama, 1,871,360 bushels; Mississippi, 1,743,432 bushels; and South Carolina, 1,205,683 bushels. Louisiana, New Jersey, Tennessee, and Texas each produced over a million of bushels.

Hay. The production of hay is confined principally to the Eastern, Middle, and Western States, comparatively little being raised in the Southern States. The product of 1870 amounted to 27,316,048 tons. New York produced 5,614,205 tons; Pennsylvania, 2,848,219 tons; Illinois, 2,747,339 tons; and Ohio, 2,289,565 tons.

Hops. The hop crop for 1870 amounted to 25,456,669 pounds, and of this the State of New York produced 17,558,681 pounds, or more than one-half of the entire amount produced in the United States.

Tobacco is indigenous to Central America, and was cultivated in various parts of the Continent before the discovery by Europeans. Columbus, in 1492, was offered a cigar by an Indian Chief on the Island of Cuba. In 1585, Sir Richard Greenville found it and saw it smoked in Virginia; and in 1616, it was extensively cultivated by the Colonists in that province. It is cultivated to a greater or less extent in nearly all the States. The crop of 1870 amounted to 262,735,341 pounds. Virginia produced 37,086,364 pounds; Kentucky, 105,305,869 pounds; Tennessee, 21,465,452 pounds; Maryland, 15,785,339 pounds; North Carolina, 11,150,087 pounds; Ohio, 18,741,973 pounds; Missouri, 12,320,483 pounds; and Connecticut, Indiana, and Massachusetts each produced more than 7,000,000 pounds. The rebellion almost destroyed the cultivation of tobacco in the Southern States, and it has not yet been fully resumed.

Sugar and Molasses. The sugar-cane is said to have been introduced into Florida, Louisiana, and Texas at the period of their first



WESTERN HOMESTEAD.

settlement by the French and Spaniards. It does not thrive beyond the 33d degree of North latitude, or the 35th of South latitude. A very small quantity (283 hhd's. in 1860) was raised in the warmest section of Wisconsin. The crop of 1870 amounted to 87,043 hogsheads of one thousand pounds each, of which Louisiana produced 80,706 hhd's. In the same year the amount of cane molasses manufactured was 6,593,323 gallons. Louisiana produced 4,585,150 gallons.

About the year 1858, a hardier species called the Sorghum, or Chinese sugar-cane, adapted to the climate of nearly all the States, was introduced. It has since been extensively cultivated, and is used exclusively for the manufacture of molasses, as it will not produce sugar. In 1870, while it was yet new to our people, the yield of Sorghum molasses was 16,050,089 gallons.

In the same year, 28,443,645 pounds of maple sugar were produced in the United States, and 921,057 gallons of maple molasses. Of maple sugar, New York produced 6,692,040 pounds; Vermont, 8,894,302 pounds; Ohio, 3,469,128 pounds; and Indiana, New Hampshire, Michigan, and Pennsylvania, each over a million. Of

maple molasses, Ohio produced 352,612 gallons; and Indiana, 227,-880 gallons.

Butter and Cheese. The total product of butter for 1870 was 514,-092,683 pounds. Of this amount, New York produced 107,147,526 pounds; Pennsylvania, 60,834,644 pounds; Ohio, 50,266,372 pounds; Illinois, 36,083,405 pounds; Indiana, 22,915,385 pounds; and Iowa, Maine, Michigan, Vermont and Wisconsin, each produced more than 20,000,000 pounds.

The amount of cheese produced in the same year was 53,492,153 pounds. New York produced 22,769,964 pounds, and Ohio, 8,169,-486 pounds.

Wine. The culture of the vine has not yet attained the importance which the future holds out to it, and the returns of 1870 afford but an indifferent test of the wine producing capacity of the United States. The yield in 1870 was 3,092,330 gallons, a gain of 1,132,322 gallons over the vintage of 1860. Of this, the State of Ohio produced 212,912 gallons; California, 1,814,656 gallons; New York, 82,607 gallons; North Carolina, 62,348 gallons; Illinois, 111,882 gallons; Connecticut, 27,414 gallons; and Virginia, 26,283 gallons. The vine is cultivated in nearly all the States, but the great grape regions of the country are the Lower Ohio Valley, and the Valleys of the Pacific coast.

Cotton. At the outbreak of the Rebellion, American Cotton controlled the markets of the world, as regards both the quantity and the quality furnished; but the war, by stopping the production of cotton, by disorganizing the system of labor, and by injuring the plantations in various ways, struck a blow at this branch of our industry, which will damage it for many years to come. In some States where free labor has been organized under control of the old planters, happy results have been attained, with the brightest prospects for the future.

Cotton is grown principally in the extreme Southern States. In Virginia and North Carolina it is becoming less important every year. The yield for 1860 amounted to 5,198,077 bales, of 400 pounds each. This amount was distributed as follows:

	Bales.
Mississippi,	1,195,699
Alabama,	997,978
Louisiana,	722,218
Georgia,	701,840
Texas,	405,100
Arkansas,	367,485

	Bales.
South Carolina,	353,413
Tennessee,	227,450
North Carolina,	143,154
Florida,	63,322
Virginia,	12,727
Kentucky,	4,692
New Mexico,	1,133
Missouri,	100
Illinois,	6
Total,	5,193,677

The yield for the year ending September 1st, 1870, was 3,011,996 bales, including 90,000 bales manufactured in the South, but counted in the following statement of the production of each State.

	Bales.
Mississippi,	564,938
Louisiana,	350,832
Alabama,	429,482
Florida,	39,789
Georgia,	473,934
Texas,	350,628
South Carolina,	224,500
North Carolina,	144,935
Virginia,	183
Tennessee, Arkansas, etc.,	432,958

Wool is grown in all the States to a greater or less extent. The yield for 1870 was 100,102,387 pounds, of which Ohio produced 20,539,643 pounds; New York, 10,599,225 pounds; Michigan, 8,726,145 pounds; California, 11,391,743 pounds; and Illinois, and Indiana, each over 5,000,000 pounds; and Maine, New Hampshire, Tennessee and Texas, each over 1,000,000 pounds.

Flax and Hemp. Flax is a native of Great Britain, and hemp of India. The second was formerly cultivated in this country to a greater extent than at present, having been to some degree superseded by the Southern cotton. In 1870 the yield of flax was 7,133,034 pounds—more than twice the amount grown in 1850. New York produced the largest amount, 3,670,818 pounds. In the same year 1,730,444 bushels of flax-seed were produced, of which Ohio grew 631,894 bushels.

Of hemp, 92,746 tons were grown in 1870. Kentucky produced 7,777 tons; and Missouri 12,816 tons.

Silk. Silk is said to be a native of Asia. Its production was introduced into the colony of Virginia in 1622, into Louisiana in

1718, into Georgia in 1732, and into Connecticut in 1760. The total product of silk cocoons in 1870 was 3937 pounds, or 2625 pounds less than the yield of 1860. California produced 3587 pounds.

Orchard Products. The value of the orchard crop of 1870 amounted to \$47,335,189. It was distributed amongst the leading States as follows: New York, \$8,347,417; Ohio, \$5,843,679; Pennsylvania, \$4,208,094; Indiana, \$2,858,086; Illinois, \$3,571,789.

Market Garden Productions. These, in 1870, amounted to \$20,719,229, distributed among the principal States as follows: New York, \$3,432,354; New Jersey, \$2,978,250; Pennsylvania, \$1,810,016; Massachusetts, \$1,980,231; California, \$1,059,779.

Clover and Grass Seed. The yield of clover seed for 1870 was 639,657 bushels. Pennsylvania produced 200,679 bushels; Ohio, 102,355 bushels; and New York, 98,837 bushels.

The yield of grass-seed for the same year was 583,188 bushels, of which Illinois produced 153,464 bushels; and New Jersey, 72,401 bushels.

Beeswax and Honey. In 1870, 631,129 pounds of beeswax were produced in the United States. North Carolina produced 109,054 pounds; and New York 86,333 pounds.

In the same year, 14,702,815 pounds of honey were produced. Illinois yielded 1,547,878 pounds; North Carolina, 1,404,040 pounds; and Kentucky, Missouri, and Tennessee, each over 1,000,000 pounds.

Value of Home-Made Manufactures. The total value of home-made manufactures in the United States, in 1870, amounted to \$23,433,332. Tennessee produced \$2,773,820 of this, and Missouri, 1,737,606.

The Value of Slaughtered Animals, in 1870, was \$398,956,376. Illinois returned \$56,786,944 of this amount, and Ohio, \$40,498,375.

Cash Value of Farms. In 1870, the cash value of farming lands in the United States amounted to \$9,262,803,861. Of this amount, New York possessed \$1,272,857,766; and Ohio, \$1,054,465,226.

In the same year the farming implements and machinery in the Union were valued at \$336,878,429. Those of New York were valued at \$45,997,712, and those of Pennsylvania at \$35,658,196.

MANUFACTURES.

The three great staple manufactures of the United States are cottons, woollens, and iron. These are manufactured in twenty-five of the States, but principally in Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Connecticut and New York. The cotton manufactures of the United States rank next to those of Great Britain. The woollen manufactures are of a more recent date than either of the others, but are growing in importance. In 1870, there were 252,148 establishments in the Union engaged in manufactures and the mechanic arts. The capital invested in them amounted to \$2,118,208,769. They consumed \$2,488,427,242 worth of raw material, and employed 2,053,996 hands, of which 1,615,598 were males, and 323,770 females above sixteen years. The annual cost of the labor employed by them was \$775,584,343, and the annual value of their products amounted to \$4,232,325,442.

The cotton manufactures of the United States, in 1870, employed a capital of \$140,706,291, in operating 956 establishments. They consumed \$117,737,686 worth of raw material. They paid annually \$39,044,132 for labor, employed 118,920 hands, of whom 45,315 were males, and 75,605 females. They received annually for their products the sum of \$115,237,926.

The woollen manufactures in the same year employed a capital of \$35,520,527, in operating 1909 establishments. They employed 48,900 hands, of whom 28,780 were males, and 20,120 were females. They consumed \$40,461,300 worth of raw material; paid \$10,937,877 for labor; and received \$68,865,963 for their products.

The iron manufactures, including pig, cast, and wrought iron, employed, in 1870, a capital of \$207,448,028, and 140,841 hands. They consumed \$212,010,601 worth of raw material in the manufacture of pig iron, castings, bar iron, forged iron, etc., and received for their products the sum of \$346,952,694.

The other more important manufactures amounted in value, during the year 1870, to the following sums:

Leather	\$157,480,697
Sawed and Planed Lumber	252,032,229
Flour	444,985,143
Salt	4,890,629
Malt Liquors	55,706,643
Spirituous and Vinous Liquors	38,416,371

In the year 1870 the product of fisheries was valued at \$11,096,522.

COMMERCE.

From the report of the Secretary of the Treasury for 1875 we find the tonnage of vessels of the United States to be 4,853,732 tons, an increase of 53,080 tons over that of the fiscal year ended June 30, 1874, exclusive of the canal-boat tonnage, amounting to about 48,000 tons, exempt from enrolment and license by the act of April 18, 1874.

The actual increase is believed to be about 141,878 tons, this amount being the excess of gains over losses during the year; but this aggregate has been reduced to 53,080 tons (the increase first above mentioned) by omitting the tonnage of the exempted canal-boats, and by corrections of tonnage returns, about 40,000 tons.

The following table exhibits the total tonnage for the last two years:

	1874.		1875.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
Registered	2,728	1,428,923	2,981	1,553,828
Enrolled and licensed	29,758	3,371,729	29,304	3,299,904
Total	32,486	4,800,652	32,285	4,853,732

The tonnage of vessels built, as given by the Register, is 297,639, being a decrease from that of the preceding year of 135,086 tons, or over 31 per centum. The number of vessels built was 1301.

The comparative value of the exports and imports of the United States for the last fiscal year, in coin, appears from official returns to the Bureau of Statistics to be as follows:

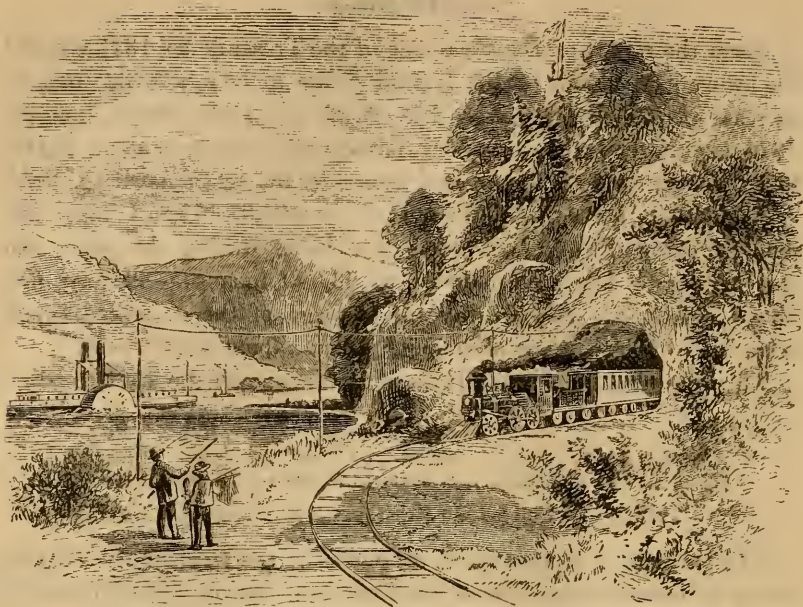
Exports of domestic goods	\$499,284,100 00
Exports of foreign goods	14,158,611 00
Total exports	513,442,711 00
Imports of goods	533,005,436 00
Excess of imports over exports	19,562,725 00

For the fiscal year ended June 30, 1874, the excess of exports over imports was \$18,876,698.

Exports of specie and bullion	\$92,132,142 00
Imports of specie and bullion	20,900,717 00
Excess of exports over imports	71,231,425 00
Total excess of exports of goods, specie and bullion, over imports of same	\$51,668,700 00

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

For many years after the States were settled by the whites, the thoroughfares were in such a wretched condition that they could scarcely be called roads at all. It was not until some years after the war for independence that a proper degree of attention was paid to them. There



VIEW ON HUDSON RIVER—SHOWING THE STEAMBOAT, TELEGRAPH,
AND RAILROAD.

it was held to be the duty of the General Government to provide the great routes of travel leading to the remote parts of the country, while the States themselves ought to look after their local highways.

The first great public work constructed in America was the turnpike from Philadelphia to Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, which was completed near the close of the last century, and was for a long time the great highway across the Alleghany Mountains. This was followed by the National Road, from Washington city to St. Louis, constructed by the U. S. Engineer Corps, at the expense of the General Government, and by the road from Bangor to Hamilton, Maine, also built by the Government. The National Road, one of the best of its kind in the world, was carried successfully over the mountains, across the Ohio, *viâ* Wheeling and Cincinnati, and completed as far as the State of Illinois; but the rapid growth of railroads has rendered it so comparatively useless that it will hardly be completed to St. Louis. Several other fine roads were constructed by the General Government in various parts of the country.

At the same time that these turnpikes were engaging the attention of the country, the States were urgently entreated to inaugurate a system of canals, which should provide cheaper and more abundant transportation between the distant parts of the Union. Washington exerted his influence to secure the speedy completion of canals from the head of tide water on the James and Potomac Rivers, to the Ohio. He appreciated the great advantages which would have been derived from the prompt completion of these works, and was eager to secure them for the State of Virginia. His plans are remarkable for their wisdom and their deep insight into the future, and had they been carried out would, beyond all doubt, have made Norfolk, Virginia, the largest and most important city in America. Pennsylvania and Maryland also began at an early day to lay out extensive canal systems, but, thanks to the genius and energy of De Witt Clinton, the State of New York was the first to reach the West with her Erie and Hudson Canal, and thus secured for her great metropolis the immense advantages which have never forsaken it. This canal was opened in 1824. In the West, Ohio and Indiana were the first to construct such works. Since 1850, however, the railroads of the country have rendered the further construction of canals unnecessary. In 1870 there were about 5000 miles of canal navigation in the United States.

The last, in point of date of construction, but the first in importance, of the public works of the United States, were the railroads. The first railroad in this country was a mere tramway, for the transportation of granite, from the quarries at Quincy to the Neponsett River, in Massachusetts, constructed in the year 1826. This was followed by the Mauch Chunk Railway, from the coal mines to the Lehigh River, in Pennsylvania, in 1827. These were mere local works, and of but little importance, except in so far as they helped to demonstrate to the public mind the possibility and usefulness of such enterprises upon a large scale.

Charters for roads of more importance were now obtained in Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland and South Carolina, whose example was rapidly followed by the other States. In 1828 work was begun on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and in 1829 on the South Carolina Railroad—at present two of the finest works in the country.

It was not until about the year 1850, however, that our railroad system began to attain anything like its present importance. The following table will show the increase in this branch of our industry since 1838 :

Number of miles in	1838	1,843
" " " " 1842	2,167	
" " " " 1844	4,863	
" " " " 1846	4,285	
" " " " 1848	6,491	
" " " " 1850	8,827	
" " " " 1852	12,841	
" " " " 1854	19,195	
" " " " 1856	23,721	
" " " " 1858	27,158	
" " " " 1860	31,185	
" " " " 1865	35,935	
" " " " 1869	42,245	

The number of miles in operation in 1875, was about 63,000. There is a continuous railway connection from Bangor, Maine, to New Orleans, on the Gulf coast, and San Francisco on the Pacific coast. All the prominent cities and towns of the Union are connected by means of railways, and the most distant parts of the country are brought within a few days' travel of each other.

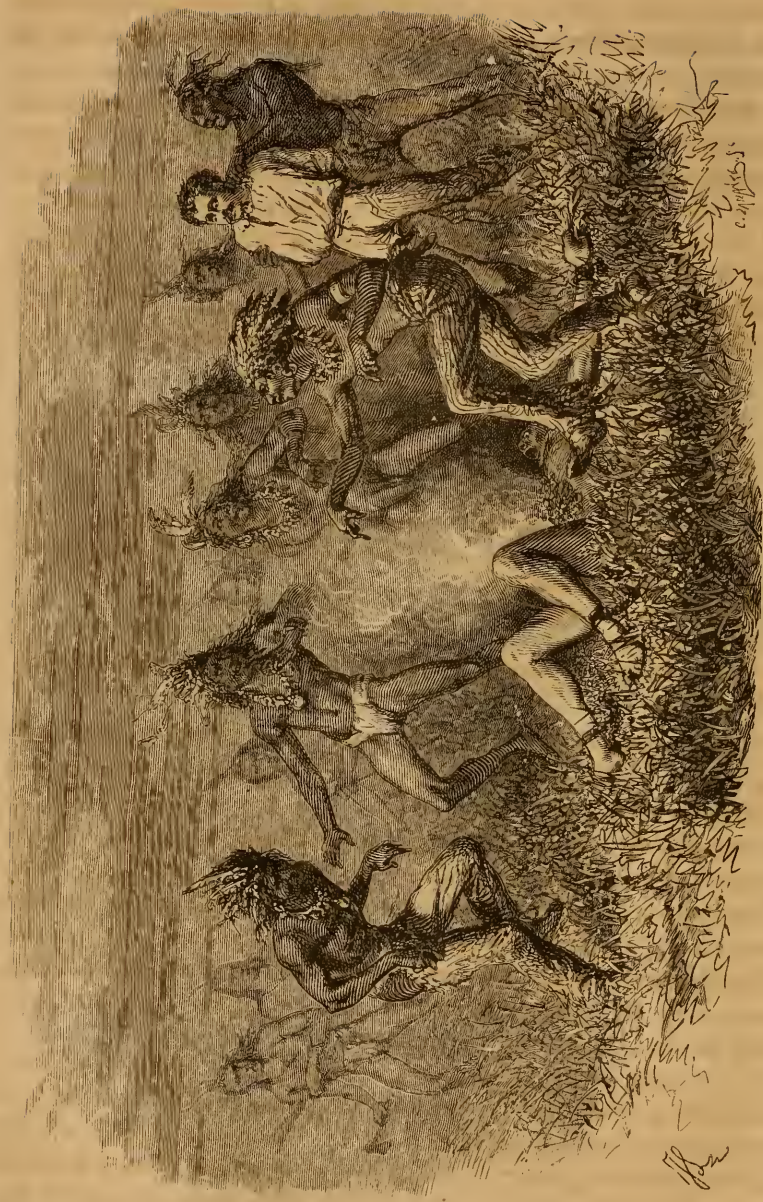
The electro-magnetic telegraph was invented by Professor Morse, about the year 1840, and in 1844 he erected between Washington and Baltimore, a distance of forty miles, the first line ever established in the United States or in the world. This line was extended northward, in 1845, through Philadelphia and New York, as far as Boston. The telegraph wires of the United States now form a network over the Republic, and would make a continuous line of more than 60,000 miles. This includes the overland line between the Missouri River and San Francisco, California, and Portland, Oregon. The American wires are also connected with those of Europe by means of the Atlantic cables, between New Foundland and Ireland, and France. It is proposed to construct another line from Portland, Oregon, along the west coast of North America to the northern part of Alaska, from which a cable is to be laid, *viâ* Kamtchatka, to the mouth of the Amoor River, in Asia, to connect with a line through Asia to St. Petersburg, in Russia.

EDUCATION.

The first settlers of the States, with a wise foresight, were prompt to provide for the education of their descendants. Almost their first act was to found a system of common schools, upon which the establishments of the present day are modelled. They also made provision for securing the means of instruction in the higher and nobler branches of learning. William and Mary College, in Virginia, Harvard Col-



INDIANS VIEWING THE PACIFIC RAILROAD.



SIOUX INDIANS BURNING A PRISONER.

lege, in Massachusetts, Yale College, in Connecticut, and Columbia College, in New York, (or King's College, as it was formerly called,) were founded within a very short period after the settlement of the Colonies.

"The general system of education in the United States may be arranged under three heads, as follows : 1. Elementary or Primary Education, taught in the public schools ; 2. Academic or Secondary Education, pursued in academies, high schools, private seminaries, etc. ; and 3. Collegiate or Superior Education, acquired in such institutions as embrace a course of study usually made the condition of granting the degree of Bachelor of Arts. In addition to the above, the Hon. Henry Barnard extends the classification as follows :

"4. Professional or Special Education.

- a. Theology. b. Law. c. Medicine. d. Engineering. e. Agriculture. f. Mechanics. g. Commerce. h. Teaching. i. Fine Arts. j. Deaf-mutes. k. Blind. l. Idiots.

"5. Supplementary Education.

- a. Evening Schools. b. Lyceums. c. Courses of Lectures. d. Libraries of Circulation. e. Libraries of Reference. f. Adult Schools. g. Mechanic Societies.

"6. Reformatory Schools.

"7. Orphan Houses.

"8. Societies for the encouragement and advancement of science, the arts, and education.

"The general system of public instruction in the United States originated with the pilgrim fathers of New England ; where, as early as 1628, provision was made for the education of 'every child' in the settlements. In 1637, a school was ordered to be provided for every neighborhood of 50 families, and another for a higher grade of instruction for every 100 families. A sum sufficient to maintain these schools was annually raised by a town tax, voluntarily imposed, and each school district drew its proportion of the whole sum for its own school or schools. Thus the property of the town was made liable for the education of the children.

"The same system, with various modifications, has gradually extended itself to most of the States in the Union, and in part has been acted upon by the General Government. Chancellor Kent says : 'It has been uniformly a part of the land system of the United States to provide for public schools. The Articles of Confederation, 1787, the Acts admitting into the Union, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Louisiana, Florida, Arkansas, etc., all provide for the appropriation of

lands in each township for the use of public schools.' The amount of lands thus appropriated by the Federal Government, up to January 1st, 1854, is exhibited in the subjoined table :

States.	Acres.	States and Territories.	Acres.
Florida	908,530	Missouri	1,199,139
Alabama	902,774	Iowa	905,144
Mississippi	837,584	Wisconsin	958,648
Louisiana	786,044	California	6,719,324
Arkansas	883,460	Minnesota	5,089,224
Ohio	704,488	Oregon	12,140,907
Michigan	1,067,397	New Mexico	7,493,120
Indiana	650,317	Utah	6,681,707
Illinois	978,755		
		Total	48,900,535 *

"The table given on the following page shows the number of public schools, academies, and colleges, with their incomes and the number of pupils in attendance, and also the number of libraries and volumes, of the several States, as derived from the Census of 1860.

"Maine has one pupil at school to every 3·2 of the whole population; being a greater proportion than in any other State or country. In the whole United States the proportion at school is 1 to 4·9, not including slaves, or 1 to 5·7, including slaves, either of which is greater than in any other country in the world except Denmark, where the proportion is 1 to 4·6.

"A greatly increased interest in the subject of popular education has been manifested within the last few years; especially in the Northern and Western States. Public sentiment has demanded a higher standard of qualification in the teachers; and, as a consequence, normal schools, expressly designed for their instruction and training, have been established in several States; besides which, teachers meet regularly in convention, to interchange views upon the best methods of teaching; thus opening a larger field of comparison, and stimulating through emulation to far greater efforts for improvement. These conventions, we believe, are now held in every free State in the Union, and in some States they assemble twice annually in each county; the sessions generally continuing a week. The classification of schools is also undergoing a thorough revision. Union schools, or what is termed the 'graded system,' which comprises high, grammar,

* Lippincott's Gazetteer, p. 1994.

intermediate, and primary schools, are being established in all the principal cities, towns, and villages. By placing the classes in the intermediate and primary schools, in charge of competent female instructors, school committees are enabled to secure the services of male teachers of the highest qualifications for the more advanced pupils, without increasing the aggregate cost of tuition.

TABLE—*Exhibiting the Schools and Libraries of the United States, for 1870.*

STATES & TERRITORIES.	SCHOOLS.	TEACHERS.	PUPILS.	INCOME.	JUNE 1, 1870.	
					LIBRARIES	VOLUMES.
Alabama	2,969	3,364	75,866	\$ 976,351	1,430	576,882
Arizona	1	7	132	6,000	6	2,000
Arkansas	1,978	2,297	81,526	681,962	1,181	135,564
California	1,548	2,444	85,507	2,946,308	1,617	474,299
Colorado	142	188	5,033	87,915	175	39,344
Connecticut	1,917	2,926	98,621	1,856,279	63	285,937
Delaware	35	52	1,255	9,284	19	9,726
District of Columbia	375	510	19,575	212,712	473	183,423
Florida	313	573	19,503	811,242	696	793,702
Georgia	377	482	14,670	154,569	253	112,928
Idaho	1,880	2,432	66,150	1,253,299	1,735	467,232
Illinois	25	33	1,208	19,938	43	10,625
Indiana	11,835	24,056	767,775	9,970,009	13,570	3,323,914
Iowa	9,073	11,652	464,477	2,499,511	5,301	1,125,553
Kansas	7,496	9,319	217,654	3,570,093	3,540	673,600
Kentucky	1,689	1,955	59,882	787,226	574	218,676
Louisiana	5,149	6,346	245,139	2,538,429	5,546	1,909,230
Maine	592	1,902	60,171	1,199,684	2,332	847,406
Maryland	4,723	6,986	162,636	1,106,203	3,334	984,510
Massachusetts	1,779	3,287	107,384	1,998,215	3,353	1,713,483
Michigan	5,726	7,561	269,337	4,817,930	3,169	3,017,813
Minnesota	5,595	9,559	266,627	2,550,018	20,763	2,174,744
Mississippi	2,479	2,880	107,266	1,011,769	1,412	36,810
Missouri	1,564	1,728	43,451	750,339	2,788	488,482
Montana	6,750	9,028	370,337	4,340,805	5,645	1,065,638
Nebraska	54	65	1,745	41,170	141	19,790
Nevada	796	840	17,614	207,560	390	147,040
New Hampshire	53	84	2,373	110,493	314	158,040
New Jersey	2,542	3,355	64,667	574,298	1,526	704,209
New Mexico	1,893	3,889	129,800	2,982,250	2,413	895,291
New York	44	72	1,798	29,886	116	39,425
North Carolina	13,020	28,918	862,022	15,936,783	20,939	6,310,352
Ohio	2,161	2,692	64,958	635,892	1,746	541,915
Oregon	11,952	23,589	790,795	10,244,441	17,790	3,677,363
Pennsylvania	637	876	32,593	248,022	2,361	334,959
Rhode Island	14,872	19,522	811,863	9,628,119	14,849	6,377,845
South Carolina	561	951	32,596	565,012	759	693,387
Tennessee	750	1,103	38,249	577,953	1,663	546,244
Texas	2,794	3,587	125,831	1,650,692	3,565	802,112
Utah	548	706	23,076	414,880	455	87,111
Vermont	267	408	21,067	150,447	133	39,177
Virginia	3,084	5,160	62,913	707,292	1,792	727,263
Washington	2,024	2,697	60,019	1,155,585	4,171	1,107,313
West Virginia	170	197	5,499	48,302	102	33,362
Wisconsin	2,445	2,838	104,949	698,061	1,728	372,745
Wyoming	4,943	7,955	344,014	2,600,310	2,883	905,811
.....	9	15	305	8,376	31	2,603
TOTAL	141,629	221,042	7,209,938	\$95,402,726	164,815	45,528,938

Of late years efforts have been made, with success, to introduce into this country the system of education known as the Kindergarten. The system is becoming more and more popular every year, as its good results become more apparent. In 1873 there were about fifty Kindergarten in successful operation in the United States, and at present the number is believed to be much larger. The great obstacle in the way of the growth of the system is the difficulty of obtaining properly trained teachers. A Normal Kindergarten is in operation in Boston, and is meeting with success.

"The effect of the system upon the physical and mental development," says Professor Hailman, of Louisville, "is more than satisfactory. The children grow strong, vigorous, and energetic; they attain full and conscious control of their muscles; become nimble and skilful; the glow of health upon their cheeks, the fire of energy in their eyes, elasticity and decision in their movements. Mentally, they become so far the superiors of children who have not enjoyed Kindergärten culture that, for the first four years, at least, in the elementary school, they accomplish fully twice as much. . . . This is due not only to their greater physical vigor and to the knowledge and skill imparted by the Kindergärten, but more particularly to the habits of attention, concentration, industry and free obedience which they owe to Fröbel's system."

"All the reports received from teachers who have taken pupils from the Kindergärten," says the United States Commissioner of Education, "mention the superiority of these children over others in their capacity for learning, owing to the careful cultivation of all their capabilities, particularly their observing faculties. They show great quickness of mental perception, and advance rapidly in the studies they undertake. The foundations of mathematical science are so well laid in the occupations and lessons of the Kindergärten, that geometry will not be to them the dry, unmeaning study it is to most, but becomes an old, familiar friend when met with in the text book."

Hon. William T. Harris, Superintendent of Public Schools in St. Louis, says of the public Kindergärten in that city: "The results during the short time this Kindergärten has been in operation have been so satisfactory, that the public school teachers desire nothing more heartily than to see the Kindergärten idea prevail in all the primary schools. The testimony of all who have a practical knowledge of the Kindergärten method is unanimous, that as a means to an end, nothing can be better, and that it will be found a matter of economy to make it a part of the public school system."

THE PRESS.

The press of the United States has kept pace with the wonderful growth of the country. In 1870, the number of newspapers and periodicals published in the States and Territories of the Union was as follows:

Dailies.....	574	Weeklies.....	4295	Quarterlies.....	49
Semi-Weeklies.	115	Monthlies.....	622		
Tri-weeklies.....	107	Bi-Monthlies.....	13	Total.....	5775

These were divided as follows:

Political.....	4333	Religious.....	407	Literary and Miscellaneous.....	503
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Their circulation was as follows :

Dailies,	2,601,547
Semi-Weeklies,	247,197
Tri-Weeklies,	155,105
Weeklies,	19,594,643
Monthlies,	5,650,843
Bi-Monthlies,	31,650
Quarterlies,	211,670

Taking the aggregate annual circulation (the above statements representing the aggregate number of copies printed at each stated issue of the journals), we find that the whole number of copies of newspapers and periodicals printed annually in this country, in 1870, was 1,508,548,250.

POST OFFICES.

According to the statistics of the Post Office Department of the United States for the year ending June 30th, 1863, there were 29,047 post offices in the States and Territories of the Union. The aggregate length of mail routes was 139,598 miles. The annual expenditures of the Department were \$11,314,206, and the receipts \$11,163,789, leaving a deficit of \$150,417. The receipts for the year ending June 30th, 1865, were \$14,556,158, and the expenditures \$13,694,728, leaving a surplus of \$861,430. The number of postage stamps issued during the latter year was 387,419,455, which yielded the sum of \$12,099,787. The number of stamped envelopes sold, 25,040,425, which yielded \$724,135. The foreign postage for the same year reached the sum of \$1,819,928. .

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

The Constitution of the United States forbids the establishment of any State religion, and places all religious sects upon a footing of equality by leaving every citizen of the Republic "free to worship God after the dictates of his own conscience." All churches and ministers, therefore, derive their incomes from the voluntary contributions of their own congregations.

The principal religious sects, and their respective strength, in the year 1870, are shown by the following table: *

* U. S. Census, 1870.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS,

ACCORDING TO

THE CENSUS OF 1870.

DENOMINATIONS.	Organiza- tions.	Edifices.	Sittings.	Property.
Baptist (Regular)	14,474	12,857	3,997,116	\$ 30,229,221
Baptist (other).....	1,355	1,105	363,019	2,378,977
Christian	3,578	2,822	865,602	6,425,137
Congregational	2,887	2,715	1,117,212	25,069,698
Episcopal (Protestant)	2,835	2,601	991,051	36,514,549
Evangelical Association.....	815	641	193,796	2,301,650
Friends	692	662	224,664	3,939,560
Jewish.....	189	152	73,265	5,155,234
Lutheran	3,032	2,776	977,332	14,917,747
Methodist	25,278	21,337	6,528,209	69,854,121
Miscellaneous.....	27	17	6,935	135,650
Moravian (<i>Unitus Fratrum</i>)	72	67	25,700	709,100
Mormon	189	171	87,838	656,750
New Jerusalem (Swedenborgian).....	90	61	18,755	869,700
Presbyterian (Regular).....	6,262	5,683	2,198,900	47,828,732
Presbyterian (other)	1,562	1,388	499,344	5,436,524
Reformed Church in America (late Dutch Reform'd).....	471	468	227,228	10,359,235
Reformed Church in the U. S. (late Germ. Reform'd).....	1,256	1,145	431,700	5,775,215
Roman Catholic.....	4,127	3,806	1,990,514	60,985,566
Second Advent.....	225	140	34,555	306,240
Shaker	18	18	8,850	86,900
Spiritualist	95	22	6,970	100,150
Unitarian	331	310	155,471	6,282,675
United Brethren in Christ.....	1,445	937	265,025	1,819,810
Universalist	719	602	210,884	5,692,325
Unknown (Local Missions).....	26	27	11,925	687,800
Unknown (Union).....	409	552	153,202	965,295
ALL DENOMINATIONS.....	72,459	63,082	21,665,062	\$354,483,581

CITIES.

The largest city in the United States is the city of New York, which, in 1860, had a population of 813,669, and in 1870 a population of 942,337, according to the census of that year; though there can be but little doubt that the actual population exceeds 1,000,000. The following table shows the population of the principal cities of the Union according to the last three censuses:

CITIES.	1870.	1860.	1850.	CITIES.	1870.	1860.	1850.
Philadelphia, Penn....	674,022	565,529	408,762	Buffalo, N. Y.....	117,115	81,129	42,261
Brooklyn, N. Y.....	396,300	266,661	96,838	Washington, D. C.....	109,204	61,122	40,001
St. Louis, Mo.....	310,864	212,418	77,860	Newark, N. J.....	105,059	71,941	38,894
Chicago, Ill.....	298,977	109,260	29,963	Louisville, Ky.....	100,754	68,033	43,194
Baltimore, Md.....	267,354	212,418	169,054	Cleveland, Ohio.....	92,846	43,417	17,034
Boston, Mass.....	250,526	177,841	136,881	Pittsburg, Pa.....	86,235	49,217	46,601
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	216,239	161,044	115,436	Jersey City, N. J.....	82,547	29,226	6,856
New Orleans, La.....	191,322	168,675	116,375	Detroit, Mich.....	79,580	45,619	21,019
San Francisco, Cal....	149,482	56,802	34,870	Milwaukee, Wis.....	71,499	45,246	20,061

CITIES.	1870.	1880.	1890.	CITIES.	1870.	1880.	1890.
Albany, N. Y.....	69,422	62,367	50,763	Bangor, Me.....	20,500		
Providence, R. I.....	68,906	50,666	41,513	Lancaster, Pa.....	20,233	17,603	12,369
Rochester, N. Y.....	62,315	48,204	36,403	Savannah, Ga.....	28,235		
Alleghany City, Pa.....	53,181	28,702		Poughkeepsie, N. Y..	20,080		
Richmond, Va.....	51,038	37,910	27,570	Camden, N. J.....	20,045		
New Haven, Conn.....	50,840	39,267	20,345	Davenport, Iowa.....	20,042	11,267	
Charleston, S. C.....	48,956	40,522	42,985	St. Paul, Minn.....	20,031	10,401	
Troy, N. Y.....	46,465	39,235	28,785	Erie, Pa.....	19,646		
Syracuse, N. Y.....	43,058	28,119	22,271	Wheeling, W. Va.....	19,282		
Worcester, Mass.....	41,105	24,960	17,049	Norfolk, Va.....	19,256	14,620	14,326
Lowell, Mass.....	40,928	36,827	33,383	Taunton, Mass.....	18,629	15,376	
Memphis, Tenn.....	40,226	22,623	8,839	Chelsea, Ma-s.....	18,547	13,395	
Cambridge, Mass.....	39,634	26,060	15,215	Dubuque, Iowa.....	18,404		
Hartford, Conn.....	37,180	29,152	13,555	Leavenworth, Kan...	17,849	7,429	
Indianapolis, Ind.....	48,244	18,611	8,034	Fort Wayne, Ind.....	17,718		
Seranton, Pa.....	35,093	9,223		Springfield, Ill.....	17,365		
Reading, Pa.....	33,932	23,162		Auburn, N. Y.....	17,225		
Columbus, Ohio.....	31,274	18,554	17,882	Newburgh, N. Y.....	17,014		
Patterson, N. J.....	33,582	19,586	11,334	Atlanta, Ga.....	16,986		
Kansas City, Mo.....	32,260			Norwich, Conn.....	16,653	14,048	
Dayton, Ohio.....	30,473	20,081	10,977	Sacramento, Cal.....	16,484	13,785	
Mobile, Ala.....	32,184	29,258	20,515	Omaha, Neb.....	16,083		
Portland, Me.....	31,414	26,341	20,815	Elmira, N. Y.....	15,863		
Wilmington, Del.....	30,841	21,258	13,979	Lockport, N. Y.....	15,458		
Lawrence, Mass.....	28,921	17,639	8,282	Gloucester, Mass.....	15,387	10,904	
Utica, N. Y.....	28,804			Cohoes, N. Y.....	15,357		
Toledo, Ohio.....	31,584	13,768	3,829	New Brunswick, N. J.	15,059		
Charlestown, Mass...	28,323	25,065	17,216	New Albany, Ind.....	15,396	12,647	9,895
Lynn, Mass.....	28,233	19,083	14,257	Galveston, Texas.....	13,818	7,307	
Fall River, Mass.....	26,786	14,026	11,524	Newburyport, Mass...	12,595	13,401	9,572
Springfield, Mass.....	26,703	15,199	11,766	Alexandria, Va.....	13,570		
Nashville, Tenn.....	25,865	16,988	10,165	Wilmington, N. C.....	13,446		
Covington, Ky.....	24,505			Newport, R. I.....	12,521	10,508	
Salem, Mass.....	24,117	22,252		Little Rock, Ark.....	12,380		
Quincy, Ills.....	24,053		20,264	Concord, N. H.....	12,241		
Manchester, N. H.....	23,536	20,107		Des Moines, Iowa.....	12,035		
Harrisburg, Pa.....	23,109	13,405		Waterbury, Conn.....	10,826	10,004	
Trenton, N. J.....	22,874		7,834	Nashua, N. H.....	10,543	10,065	
Peoria, Ill.....	22,849	11,045		Raleigh, N. C.....	10,149		
Evansville, Ind.....	22,830	11,484	3,235	New London, Conn...	9,576	10,115	
New Bedford, Ma-s...	21,320	22,300	16,443	Portland, Oreg.....	8,293	2,874	
Oswego, N. Y.....	20,910	16,816	12,205	Virginia City, Nev...	7,008		
Elizabeth, N. J.....	20,838			Topeka, Kan.....	5,790		

GOVERNMENT.

The Government of the United States is a Confederation of the various States, each and all of which have delegated a certain share of their powers to a General Government for their mutual benefit and protection. This General Government is controlled by a written Constitution, which has been ratified by each State, and has thus been made the supreme law of the land. By the terms of this Constitution, all powers not granted by it to the General Government are reserved to the several States and to the people thereof, but in the exercise of the powers delegated by the Constitution, the General Government is independent of and supreme over all the States.

The Government of the Republic is divided into three coördinate branches—the *Executive*, the *Legislative*, and the *Judiciary*.

The Executive branch consists of a President and Vice-President, elected for four years by electors chosen by the popular vote in each State. The number of electors chosen in each State is equal to the number of Senators and Representatives from that State at the time of the election. Thus a State having four Representatives in the lower House of Congress, and two Senators in the upper House, is entitled to six electors in an election for President. It is usual for the electors to cast their votes in accordance with the will of the majority of the people of the State, as expressed by the popular vote, but it seems certain that it was the original design of the Constitution that the electors upon being chosen by the people should be free to elect a President of their own choice. A majority of the whole number of electoral votes is necessary to a choice. If no person be chosen, then the names of the three persons receiving the highest number of votes shall be presented to the House of Representatives, which shall proceed to vote by States (each State having but one vote, and a majority of States being necessary to a choice) for President, or Vice-President, as the case may be. In the event of a failure, by both the electors and the House of Representatives, to elect a President before the 4th of March, next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President. In case the electors fail to choose a Vice-President, the Senate of the United States shall proceed to choose a Vice-President from the two highest numbers on the list, a majority of the whole number being necessary to an election.

The President of the United States is the Constitutional Commander-in-chief of the Army and Navy of the United States. He has power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment; he makes treaties, with the concurrence of two-thirds of the Senate, nominates the members of his cabinet, foreign ministers, and other officers of the United States, which nomination must be confirmed by the Senate before the official can enter upon his office, and, by the terms of the Constitution, may, at his pleasure, remove any officer of the Government subject to his nomination. He may be impeached for high crimes and misdemeanors, and be removed, if convicted. The articles of impeachment must be presented by the House of Representatives, and tried by the Senate, sitting as a high court and presided over by the Chief Justice of the United States. In the event of the death, resignation, or removal of the President, the Vice-President succeeds to his office, and the President *pro tempore* of the Senate becomes the acting Vice-

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President of the United States. It is the duty of the President to execute, or cause to be executed, the laws of the United States as prescribed by Congress.

The Vice-President is *ex-officio* President of the Senate, and in case of the death or disability of the President, as explained above, becomes President of the United States. Should he die, resign, or be removed from his office, the President *pro tempore* of the Senate becomes the President of the United States. In the event of the disability of all three of the officials named above, the Speaker of the House of Representatives becomes the President of the United States. The President *pro tempore* of the Senate is usually chosen near the close of each session with a view to the contingency we have mentioned. The Speaker of the House of Representatives is elected at the beginning of each Congress—that is, every two years.

The Legislative branch consists of a Senate and House of Representatives, which constitute the Congress of the United States. The Senate is composed of two members from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years, so that one-third of the whole number of Senators shall retire at the end of every second year. A Senator must be at least thirty years of age, and must have been nine years a citizen of the United States. The Senate has power to ratify or reject all treaties between the United States and Foreign Powers, and to confirm or reject nominations to office under the Government submitted to it by the President of the United States. The House of Representatives is composed of Representatives chosen by the *people* of the States once every two years. A Representative must be at least 25 years of age, have been seven years a citizen of the United States, and a resident of the State from which he is chosen. Representatives are apportioned among the States according to the number of inhabitants, excluding idiots and Indians not taxed. The ratio is changed with the increase of population. The number of Representatives is limited by law to 241, besides delegates from each Territory. Each State, whatever its population, must have at least one Representative. Delegates from the Territories are allowed seats on the floor of the House, and are permitted to participate in the debates, but have no votes. All bills for raising revenue and for taxation must originate in the House of Representatives. The Senate represents the States of the Union in their sovereign capacity (each State being made equal in that body by having two votes), and the House of Representatives the people.

Congress has power to levy and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States, but is required to make all such impositions uniform throughout the United States. It has power to borrow money on the credit of the United States, to make laws for the regulation of the foreign and inter-State trade of the Union, and to regulate the traffic with the Indian tribes; to make all laws respecting the subjects of naturalization and bankruptcies; to regulate the coinage and value of money, to fix the value of foreign money, and to adjust the standard of weights and measures; to provide for the punishment of persons counterfeiting the money or securities of the United States; to establish post-offices and post-roads; to regulate the granting of copyrights and patents; to regulate the courts of the United States, inferior to the Supreme Court; to define and punish piracies and offences committed on the high seas; to declare war, conclude peace, and regulate all matters appertaining thereto; to raise an army and navy, and provide for their support; to call forth the militia when their services are needed, and provide laws for their government while in the service of the United States; and to exercise exclusive jurisdiction over all forts, arsenals, and other property of the United States, and over the District of Columbia, in which the seat of government is located.

A bill must receive a majority of the votes necessary to form a quorum in each house, and receive the signature of the President of the United States before it can become a law. Should the President object to a bill, or a part of its provisions, he must send it, with his objections in writing, to the house in which it originated, when that house must proceed to reconsider it, and if two-thirds of each house sustain the bill, in spite of his objections, it becomes a law without the approval of the President. If the President does not return a bill in ten days, Sabbaths excluded, it becomes a law without his approval, provided Congress is still in session at the expiration of the ten days; but if Congress shall adjourn before the ten days have expired, the President may defeat the bill by keeping it over until after the adjournment. This is usually termed a "pocket veto."

The Judiciary branch of the Government consists of one Supreme Court, 9 Circuit Courts, and 47 District Courts. The Supreme Court is the highest judicial tribunal in the Union, and consists of one Chief Justice and 8 Associate Justices, who are appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and retain their offices during good behavior. The Supreme Court holds

one session annually, commencing the first Monday in December. A Circuit Court is held twice a year in each State by a judge of the Supreme Court and the District Judge of the State or district in which the court is held. The District Courts are held by special judges, usually one for each district. The United States or Federal Courts have jurisdiction in all cases of law and equity arising under the Constitution and laws of the United States, and treaties made under their authority; in all cases concerning foreign ministers and agents; in all cases of marine jurisdiction; in all cases in which the United States is a party; in all cases between States, or between a State and a citizen of another State, or between citizens of different States, between citizens of the same State claiming lands under the grants of another State, and between a State and citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects. Each District Court of the United States is provided with a prosecuting attorney and a marshal.

The States are sovereign in themselves, and as regards their own affairs. The Government of each one is similar to that of the United States, consisting of an Executive or Governor, a Legislature, composed of two houses, all elected by the people, and a judiciary. Each State is independent of all the others, and subject only to the Constitution of the United States. Each is required to accord full faith and credit to the transactions of the others, provided they are not contrary to the supreme law of the land. The States may not enter into any combinations with each other not provided for by the Constitution, nor keep troops in time of peace, nor make war nor conclude peace. A State may not impose any restrictions upon the trade between the States, or levy or collect imposts of any kind upon any but its own citizens.

The Territories are the common property of the United States, and are governed by Legislatures elected by their own inhabitants, and by Governors appointed by the President of the United States. A Territory having a number of inhabitants sufficient to entitle it to one representative in Congress, may be admitted into the Union as a State. It must first adopt a State Constitution, which must be ratified by the people of the Territory at the polls, and submitted to Congress for its approval. If approved by Congress, the President shall issue his proclamation declaring the Territory duly admitted as a State, and the new State shall ratify the Constitution of the United States.

Titles of nobility, acts of attainder, and *ex-post facto* laws are for-

bidden by the Constitution of the United States, and by the States. No criminal can be sheltered by the authorities of a State or Territory in which he may take refuge, from the authorities of the State or Territory in which his offence was committed. Citizenship of a State confers all such privileges in the several States. Trial by jury is secured for all offences. No preference shall be shown to any religion by the Government, but equal rights and privileges are secured to all sects. The privacy of the house of a citizen is secured against unlawful violation by search, seizure, or by quartering a soldier upon him in time of peace. Excessive bail or fines, and cruel and unusual punishments are forbidden, and no one may be tried twice for a capital offence.

THE ARMY.

The military establishment of the United States, as reorganized by the Act of July 28th, 1866, consists of 10 regiments, or 120 companies, of cavalry, 5 regiments, or 60 companies, of artillery, and 45 regiments, or 450 companies, of infantry, making an effective force (should the maximum strength of all the regiments be attained) of 76,000 men, divided as follows: artillery 7000, cavalry 14,000, infantry 55,000. At present the effective strength of companies has been fixed as follows: for infantry, cavalry, and artillery (heavy), 64 privates, and for light artillery 122 privates; making an aggregate strength of 54,302 men. Besides this force, the militia of the States, which in many of them is well organized and effective, may be called into service by the General Government in case of emergency. The promptness with which such appeals have always been responded to by the States, shows that the real available force of the Republic is more than 1,000,000 men, the majority of whom are at present veteran soldiers.

The President of the United States is the Constitutional Commander-in-Chief of the army, but it is usual for him to relinquish the active management of its affairs to the War Department and to the General of the Army, who is its immediate Commander-in-Chief, and has his headquarters in Washington City. The other officers of the regular establishment are:

One lieutenant-general; 5 major-generals; 10 brigadier-generals; 1 chief of staff to the general, brigadier-general; 1 adjutant-general, brigadier-general; 1 judge-advocate-general, brigadier-general; 1 quartermaster-general, brigadier-general; 1 commissary-general, brigadier-general; 1 surgeon-general, brigadier-general;

1 paymaster-general, brigadier-general; 1 chief of engineers, brigadier-general; 1 chief of ordnance, brigadier-general; 87 colonels; 99 lieutenant-colonels; 327 majors; 835 captains; 857 1st lieutenants; 583 2d lieutenants; 6 chaplains.

A considerable force is required at all times on the western frontier to protect the settlers against the attacks of the Indians. The remainder of the army is employed in garrisoning and protecting the forts, arsenals, and other public property of the Republic.

THE NAVY.

The naval establishment of the United States consists of 206 vessels, carrying 1743 guns. Of these, 35 are first-rates, carrying 662 guns. Each vessel is of at least 2400 tons; the second-rates, of from 1200 to 2400 tons, are 37 in number, and carry 483 guns; the third-rates, of from 600 to 1200 tons, number 76 vessels, and carry 414 guns; the fourth-rates, under 600 tons, are 38 in number, and carry 184 guns. Of the above force, 52 are iron-clads, carrying 129 guns; 95 are screw steamers, carrying 938 guns; 28 are paddle-wheel steamers, carrying 199 guns; and 31 are sailing vessels, carrying 477 guns.

The *active list* of the service is as follows:

One admiral, 1 vice-admiral, 10 rear-admirals, 25 commodores, 49 captains, 89 commanders, 139 lieutenant-commanders, 45 lieutenants, 30 masters, 52 ensigns, 157 midshipmen, 67 surgeons, 37 passed assistant-surgeons, 36 assistant-surgeons, 79 paymasters, 56 passed assistant-paymasters, 52 chief-engineers, 90 first assistant-engineers, 137 second assistant-engineers, 24 third assistant-engineers, 19 chaplains, 11 professors, 7 naval constructors, 5 assistant naval constructors, 52 boatswains, 57 gunners, 39 carpenters, 31 sailmakers. In the Naval Academy, there are 348 midshipmen undergoing instruction, 16 third assistant-engineers, and 1 cadet engineer.

The *retired list* is as follows:

Eighteen rear-admirals, 60 commodores, 31 captains, 17 commanders, 3 lieutenant-commanders, 6 masters, 1 midshipman, 24 surgeons, 3 passed assistant-surgeons, 3 assistant-surgeons, 14 paymasters, 14 assistant-engineers, 8 chaplains, 2 professors, 6 boatswains, 6 gunners, 6 carpenters, 5 sailmakers.

FINANCES.

The financial condition of the United States is thus stated by the Secretary of the Treasury in his report for 1875 :

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES FOR FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1875.

Receipts.

The moneys received and covered into the Treasury by warrants during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1875, were as follows :

From customs.....	\$157,167,722 35
From internal revenue.....	110,007,493 58
From sales of public lands.....	1,413,640 17
From tax on circulation and deposits of national banks.....	7,268,379 16
From re-payment of interest by Pacific Railway companies..	882,274 91
From customs' fines, penalties, etc.....	228,870 23
From labor, drayage, storage, etc.....	1,112,500 53
From sales of Indian trust lands	243,671 66
From fees—consular, letters patent and land.....	1,818,884 29
From proceeds of sales of Government property.....	1,278,693 87
From marine hospital tax.....	338,893 78
From steamboat fees.....	260,944 75
From profits on coinage, etc.....	452,657 40
From tax on seal skins.....	317,494 75
From miscellaneous sources.....	1,228,649 98
Total ordinary receipts.....	284,020,771 41
Premium on sales of coin.....	3,979,279 69
Total net receipts, exclusive of loans.....	288,000,051 10
Balance in treasury, June 30, 1874, including deposits of coin and United States notes represented by certificates outstanding	150,731,694 63
Total available cash.....	438,731,745 73

Expenditures.

The net expenditures by warrants during the same period were :

For civil expenses.....	\$17,346,929 53
For foreign intercourse.....	1,265,418 23
For Indians.....	8,384,656 82
For pensions.....	29,456,216 22
For military establishment, including fortifications; river and harbor improvements and arsenals.....	41,120,645 98
For naval establishment, including vessels, and machinery and improvements at navy yards.....	21,497,626 28
For miscellaneous civil, including public buildings, light-houses, and collecting the revenues.....	50,528,536 22
For interest on the public debt, including interest on bonds issued to Pacific Railway companies.....	103,093,544 57
For payment of award to British claimants	1,929,819 00
Total net expenditures.....	274,623,392 85
Redemption of public debt.....	19,405,936 48
Total net disbursements.....	294,029,329 33
Balance in treasury, June 30, 1875.....	144,702,416 41
Total.....	438,731,745 74

This statement shows that the net revenues for the fiscal year were.....	\$288,000,051 10
And the ordinary expenses (including the award to British claimants, \$1,929,819).....	274,623,392 84
Leaving a surplus revenue, exclusive of provision for the sinking fund.....	13,376,658 26

REDUCTION OF THE PUBLIC DEBT.

By the monthly statement of the public debt issued June 30, 1875, the reduction of the debt during the year was shown to be \$14,399,514 84, viz. :

Principal of the debt, July 1, 1874.....	\$2,251,690,468 43
Interest due and unpaid, and accrued interest to date.....	38,939,087 47
Total debt.....	2,290,629,555 90
Cash in treasury.....	147,541,314 74
Debt, less cash in treasury.....	2,143,088,241 16
Principal of the debt July 1, 1875	2,232,284,531 95
Interest due and unpaid, and accrued interest to date....	38,647,556 19
Total debt.....	2,270,932,088 14
Cash in treasury..	142,243,361 82
Debt, less cash in the treasury.....	2,128,688,726 32
Showing a reduction, as above stated, of.....	\$14,399,514 84

The number of National Banks organized from the authorization of the system to November 1, 1875, is 2307, of which 2087 were doing business on the 1st of October last. From their reports of the date last named it appears that the aggregate capital of these banks was \$504,829,769 : surplus, \$134,356,076 ; circulation outstanding, \$318,350,379 ; individual deposits, \$664,579,619 ; loans, \$980,222,951 ; specie, including coin certificates, \$8,050,329 ; legal tender notes, including United States certificates of deposit, \$125,268,734 ; and on deposit with the United States Treasurer, \$19,686,960.

HISTORY.

There is reason to believe that the savages who were found in America by the first European settlers were not the original inhabitants of the Continent, but that they were preceded at a very remote period by another and a more powerful race, unknown and long extinct, but which has left vague evidence of its existence in the curious mounds and earthworks which are to be seen in various parts of the Mississippi Valley. At the time of its discovery by the whites, however, the red men were the sole human occupants of the Continent, which was covered with vast woods and plains abounding with game of every description, the pursuit of which formed the principal occupation of the natives, and furnished them with food and clothing.

The Indians were really one people in physical appearance, manners, customs, religion, and in the observances of their social and political systems, but were divided into numerous tribes, each of which had a dialect distinct from that of the others. The tribes were for the most part bitterly hostile to, and constantly engaged in war with each other. They are generally divided into eight nations, speaking eight radically distinct languages. These were :

I. *The Algonquins*, who inhabited the territory now comprised in the six New England States, the eastern part of New York and Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina as far south as Cape Fear, a large part of Kentucky and Tennessee, and nearly all of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. This nation was subdivided into the following tribes: the Knistenaux, Ottawas, Chippewas, Sacs and Foxes, Menomonees, Miamis, Piankeshaws, Potawatomes, Kickapoos, Illinois, Shawnees, Powhatans, Corees, Nanticokes, Lenni-Lenapes or Delawares, Mohegans, Narragansets, Pequots, and Abenakis.

II. *The Iroquois*, who occupied almost all of that part of Canada south of the Ottawa, and between Lakes Ontario, Erie, and Huron, the greater part of New York, and the country lying along the south shore of Lake Erie, now included in the States of Ohio and Pennsylvania. This territory, it will be seen, was completely surrounded by the domains of their powerful and bitter enemies, the Algonquins. The nation was subdivided into the following tribes: the Senecas, Cayugas, Onondagas, Oneidas, and Mohawks. These five were afterwards called by the English the Five Nations. In 1722, they admitted the Tuscaroras into their confederation, and were afterwards called the Six Nations. The nation called itself collectively the Konoskioni, or "Cabin-builders." The Algonquins termed them Mingoës, the French, Iroquois, and the English, Mohawks, or Mingoës.

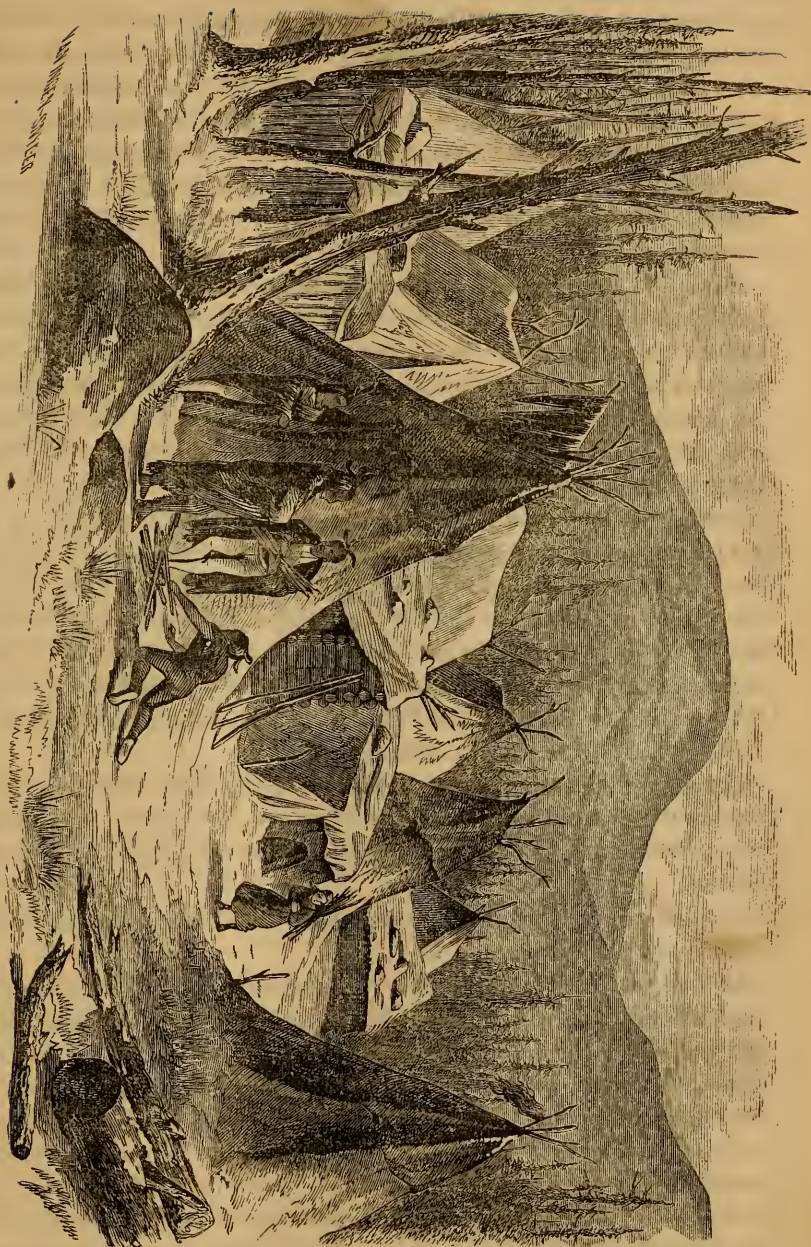
III. *The Catawbas*, who dwelt along the banks of the Yadkin and Catawba Rivers, near the line which at present separates the States of North and South Carolina.

IV. *The Cherokees*, whose lands were bounded on the east by the Broad River of the Carolinas, including all of Northern Georgia.

V. *The Uchees*, who dwelt south of the Cherokees, along the Savannah, the Oconee, and the headwaters of the Ogeechee and Chattahoochee. They spoke a harsh and singular language, and are believed to have been the remnant of a once powerful nation.

VI. *The Mobilian Nation*, who inhabited all of Georgia and South

INDIAN VILLAGE IN WINTER.



Carolina not mentioned in the above statements, a part of Kentucky and Tennessee, and all of Florida, Alabama, and Mississippi. Their territory was next in extent to that of the Algonquins, and extended along the Gulf of Mexico from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River. The nation was divided into three great confederations—the Creeks or Muscogeas, the Choctaws, and the Chickasaws—and was subdivided into a number of smaller tribes, the principal of which were the Seminoles and Yemassees, who were members of the Creek Confederation.

VII. *The Natchez*, who dwelt in a small territory east of the Mississippi, and along the banks of the Pearl River. They were surrounded on all sides by the tribes of the Mobilian language, yet remained until their extinction a separate nation, speaking a distinct language peculiar to themselves, and worshipping the sun as their god. They are believed to have been the most civilized of all the savage tribes of North America.

VIII. *The Dacotahs or Sioux*, whose territory was bounded on the north by Lake Winnipeg, on the south by the Arkansas River, on the east by the Mississippi, and on the west by the Rocky Mountains. The nation was divided into the following branches: the Winnebagoes, living between Lake Michigan and the Mississippi; the Assiniboins, living in the extreme north; the Southern Sioux, living between the Arkansas and the Platte; and the Minatarees, Mandans, and Crows, who lived west of the Assiniboins.

The great plains, the Rocky Mountains, and the Pacific coast were held by the powerful tribes of the Pawnees, Comanches, Apachees, Utahs, Black Feet, Snakes, Nezperces, Flatheads, and California Indians.

These were the inhabitants and possessors of the country at the time of its first settlement.

In the year 1492, Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, in Italy, sailing under the orders of the King and Queen of Spain, discovered the West Indies; and thus proved beyond all doubt the existence of a new world. There is a Scandinavian tradition that a Norwegian named Leif, in the year 1002, on his voyage from Iceland to Greenland, was driven southward by storms, to a country which was unknown to Europeans, and which he called Vinland, because of the wild grapes with which he found it covered. It is also said that his discovery was followed by several Scandinavian settlements, none of which proved permanent. It is supposed by some writers

that the country alluded to as Vinland, in this tradition, was the State of Rhode Island; but as the legend rests upon no solid foundation, the credit of having been the first to discover the New World must be accorded to Columbus.

On the 24th of June, 1497, John Cabot, a Venitian, commanding a ship belonging to Henry VII. of England, discovered land, along which he sailed to the southward for over 1000 miles, making frequent landings, and taking possession of the country in the name of the English King. The next year his son, Sebastian Cabot, left Bristol, England, with two ships, to seek a northwest passage to China. He was stopped by the ice, however, and turned about and sailed southward down the American coast as far as the capes of Virginia—the entrance to Chesapeake Bay. In 1513, Ponce de Leon, acting under the authority of the King of Spain, discovered Florida, and took possession of the country near the present site of the town of St. Augustine. A short while after, he returned and attempted to establish a colony. He was attacked and killed, and his followers driven away by the natives. In the latter part of the year 1523, John Verazzani, a native of Florence, was sent by Francis I., of France, to explore the New World. He was fifty days in crossing the ocean, being vexed by terrible storms all the way, and made land off the mouth of the Cape Fear River, near the present city of Wilmington, North Carolina. He sailed southward for 150 miles, in search of a convenient harbor, but, failing to find one, passed up the coast as far north as Nova Scotia. He visited New York and Newport harbors, as they are now called, both of which are accurately described in the account of his voyage. In 1539, Hernando de Soto landed with several hundred men, in Tampa Bay, Florida, and marched across the continent, defeating the natives on his way, and discovered the Mississippi River, near the site of the present city of Helena, Arkansas. He passed through the region now comprising the States of Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, and penetrated 200 miles west of the great river. Two years after his landing in Florida, he wandered back to the Mississippi, where he died, and was buried at midnight in the stream. His followers, disheartened by his death, descended the river in boats to its mouth, and, crossing the Gulf, sought refuge in the Spanish settlements in Mexico, where they told marvellous stories of the country they had seen.

For several years there was no further effort made to colonize the New World. In 1562, a band of French Calvinists, or Huguenots,

acting upon the advice of Admiral Coligni, endeavored to found a colony here, for the purpose of establishing a refuge for French Protestants, who should be driven out of their own country by the persecutions of the Roman Catholics. A charter was granted by Charles IX. of France, and an expedition sent out, under Jean Ribault, which made a settlement at Port Royal, in a country which was called Carolina, in honor of the French King. This settlement was soon abandoned, however, and another established on the banks of the St. John's River, in Florida. In 1565, Spain renewed her efforts to colonize Florida. An expedition was sent out in that year, which destroyed the French settlement on the St. John's River, and massacred the inhabitants. Having removed their rivals, the Spaniards then proceeded to found the town of St. Augustine, which is the oldest and first permanent European settlement in the present territory of the Union.

The English paid little or no attention to the discoveries of the Cabots for nearly a century. Then, alarmed by the efforts which France and Spain were making to secure a footing in the New World, England began the task of colonizing her distant lands upon a larger scale than had been attempted by either of her rivals, and was not slow to assert the claim which the discoveries of the Cabots had given her, and which, indeed, she had never relinquished.

The first colony was sent out in 1585, in the reign of Elizabeth, under Sir Walter Raleigh, and was established on Roanoke Island, in the present State of North Carolina, a site which Raleigh had discovered during the previous year, and where he had been hospitably entertained by the natives. The whole country was called Virginia, in honor of the Virgin Queen of England. The colony did not prosper, however, and in a few years it was utterly gone. In 1606, James I. divided the English possessions in America into two parts—North Virginia, extending from the mouth of the Hudson River to Newfoundland, and South Virginia, extending from the Potomac to Cape Fear. Two companies were formed in England for colonizing these regions, the London Company, which received from the king the grant of South Virginia, and the Plymouth Company, to which the king gave North Virginia. These companies agreed to colonize their respective grants with due promptness, and to regard the territory lying between the Potomac and the Hudson as neutral ground, upon which both companies were free to make settlements at pleasure. The London Company went to work at once, and sent over an expe-



THE RUINS OF JAMESTOWN: THE FIRST PERMANENT ENGLISH SETTLEMENT IN AMERICA.

dition commanded by Captain Newport, which made a lodgement on the north shore of the James River, in the present State of Virginia, on the 13th of May, 1607. They called their settlement Jamestown, and the river on which it was located, the James, in honor of their sovereign. The command of this expedition was vested in Captain Newport, but the life and soul of the whole undertaking was the celebrated Captain John Smith, to whom alone is due the credit of carrying the colony firmly through the dangers and trials which surrounded its infancy, and planting it upon a permanent basis. He explored the Chesapeake and its tributaries, of which he made maps and sketches which are noted to-day for their accuracy.

These voyages of discovery were made in an open boat, the crew of which he could not always depend upon. They were full of romantic adventure. In one of them he was captured and condemned to death by the Indians, but was rescued by Pocahontas, the daughter of king Powhatan. Captain Smith made

several voyages between England and America, and in 1614 explored and made excellent drawings of the coast from Cape Cod to the Penobscot. To this part of the country he gave the name of New England, by which it has since been known. He won the friendship of the Indians for the whites in Virginia, and by his maps and descriptions did more in England than was done by any other man to arouse that enthusiasm which finally led to the successful planting of the whole Atlantic coast of America with English settlements.

The government of the Colony of Virginia was at first vested in a council appointed by the king, but this arrangement was found to work so badly that a change was made, which was followed by several others, until at length a House of Burgesses, chosen by the people, was established. This Assembly, which was the first representative body that ever sat in America, met on the 19th of June, 1619. This event, so important in our history, was followed by two of equal moment, one in August, of the same year, when a Dutch man-of-war entered the James River and sold a cargo of 20 Africans to the planters of Virginia, thus introducing negro slavery into the Colonies; and another in 1621, when the cultivation of cotton was begun in Virginia.

The Plymouth Company made extensive preparations on paper for the settlement of their immense territory. Their charter gave them absolute property in and authority over the vast region lying between the Atlantic and Pacific, and bounded by the 40th and 48th parallels of North latitude, and they prepared to make very hard bargains with those who wished to buy lands of them. The first settlement in their domain, however, was made without their consent or authority, by a band of Puritans, under the leadership of John Carver, William Brewster, William Bradford, Edward Winslow, and Miles Standish. This colony sailed from England on the 6th of September, 1620, in a vessel of 180 tons burthen, called the Mayflower, and landed on the coast of Massachusetts Bay, on the 21st of December of the same year. They numbered 100 men, women, and children, and at once proceeded to found a settlement, which they named Plymouth, in honor of the last English port from which they had sailed, and where they had been kindly treated. They had no charter from the king, or sanction from the Plymouth Company, but conducted their enterprise upon their own responsibility, looking to God for assistance and protection. While still on their voyage, they arranged the form of their government. They organized it upon a basis of religion as well as



PLYMOUTH ROCK.

of civil justice. Their religious system is well described by Robertson, who says: "They united together in a religious society, by a solemn covenant with God, and with one another, and in strict conformity, as they imagined, to the rules of Scripture. They elected a Pastor, an Elder, and a Teacher, whom they set apart by the imposition of the hands of the brethren. All who were that day admitted members of the church, signified their assent to a confession of faith drawn up by their Teacher, and gave an account of their own hopes as Christians; and it was declared that no person should hereafter be

received into communion until he gave satisfaction to the church with respect to his faith and sanctity. The form of public worship which they instituted was without a liturgy, disencumbered of every superfluous ceremony, and reduced to the lowest standard of Calvinistic simplicity." Their civil system was thoroughly republican. The governor was chosen by the people, and his acts were subject to the approval of a council consisting at first of 5 and afterwards of 7 assistants. In the beginning the legislative power was vested in the whole people, but as the colony expanded a legislature elected by the people was established. In 1629, the colony received a charter from Charles I. of England. It prospered from the first, and its success brought over other arrivals from England. In 1628, a settlement was made by a band of Puritans from England, under John Endicott, at Salem, on Massachusetts Bay, which general name was given to the new colony. In 1630, a fleet with 840 new settlers, under John Winthrop, arrived from England, and in September of that year founded the city of Boston, which they named in honor of the village in England from which the Rev. John Cotton, their pastor, came.* New settlers now came over by scores, the number of inhabitants increased rapidly, and in 1690 the colonies of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay were united under one government.

In 1623, Sir Fernando Gorges and John Mason took out a patent for a territory called Taconia, lying between the Atlantic and the St. Lawrence, and the Merrimack and the Kennebec. In the same year they settled the cities of Portsmouth and Dover, in New Hampshire. A French colony had been planted in Maine in 1613, but had been broken up by an expedition from Virginia, and the first permanent settlements in Maine were made by the English at Saco and on Monhegan Island, in 1622 or 1623. These settlements some years later became a part of the territory of Massachusetts, and were retained by her until the formation of the State of Maine in 1820.

In 1635, a company of emigrants from Massachusetts, under the pious Hooker, settled the region now comprised in the State of Connecticut, by founding the towns of Hartford and Wethersfield. The Dutch had built a trading post and fort at Hartford in 1633, and a few huts at Wethersfield in 1634, and claimed the territory in consequence of this, but their claim was not regarded by the English.

* It is not a little curious that the Puritan Fathers should have given their metropolis the name of a famous Roman Catholic Saint.



THE FIRST SETTLEMENT OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

In 1636, Roger Williams, who had been exiled from Massachusetts on account of his religious opinions, founded the colony of Rhode Island, by settling the town of Providence, which is now the capital of the State.

New York was settled by the Dutch, but the State was first entered by a French navigator named Samuel Champlain, who discovered the lake to which he has given his name, in July, 1609, and fought a battle on its shores with a band of Mohawks. He inflicted a severe defeat upon them, and from that time the Six Nations were the bitter

and lasting enemies of the French. On the 6th of September, 1609, Henry Hudson, an Englishman, sailing under the orders of the Dutch East India Company, entered the Bay of New York, discovered the great river which bears his name, and ascended it to within a few miles of the present city of Albany. He took possession of the country for the Government of Holland, by which it was named New Netherlands. A few years later trading posts and forts were established on Manhattan Island (New York City), at the mouth of the Hudson, and at Fort Orange (Albany). In 1623, thirty families settled on Manhattan Island, and called their settlement New Amsterdam, and in the same year eighteen families came over to Fort Orange. From this time the Dutch settlements grew rapidly. They extended along the Hudson, as far eastward as Connecticut, and as far southward as the Delaware. The Swedes, who had settled the latter river, and had villages along both banks of the Delaware, almost as far up as the present city of Philadelphia, resisted the Dutch encroachments, but were finally driven away in 1655 by a military expedition of the latter. The English, who claimed the whole country by right of Cabot's discovery, finding that all diplomatic efforts to induce the Dutch to abandon their American settlements were vain, terminated the controversy by taking forcible possession of the province of New Netherlands in 1664. They changed the names of the province and the principal settlement, New Amsterdam, to New York, and that of Fort Orange to Albany, in honor of the Duke of York and Albany (afterwards James II., of England), to whom Charles II. had granted the territory.

That portion of New Jersey lying along the Hudson was settled by the Dutch about the same time that the colony of New Amsterdam began to attract emigrants from Holland. The Swedes settled the southwest portion along the Delaware, in 1627. It fell into the hands of the English when New York was seized by them, and at the same time acquired the name which it bears at present. Sir George Carteret and Lord Berkeley purchased the territory from the Duke of York, and made it a distinct colony, naming it New Jersey, after the island of Jersey, of which Sir George had been governor.

Delaware was settled by the Dutch in 1630. They established their settlement near Lewes. In 1633, it was entirely destroyed by the Indians. In 1637, a company of Swedes and Finns made a settlement on the island of Tinicum, a few miles below Philadelphia. Several other settlements were formed, and the country was called New Sweden. The Dutch, after protesting against this occupation of



THE FIRST SETTLERS OF AMERICA CLEARING THE LAND.

the territory by the Swedes, made war upon them, and in 1655 reduced the Swedish forts, and sent back to Europe all the colonists who refused to swear allegiance to Holland. The Delaware settlements were held by the Dutch until the final conquest of New Netherlands by the English. The title to the Delaware lands was disputed by Lord Baltimore, but was held by the Duke of York, who sold it to William Penn. Penn's rights were sustained by the English authorities, and the three counties of Delaware remained a part of Pennsylvania until 1703, when they were allowed the liberty

of forming a separate establishment. Until 1776, however, the same governor administered the affairs of Pennsylvania and Delaware.

In 1681, William Penn procured a grant of the lands west of the Delaware, and in 1682 he brought over a colony of Friends, or Quakers, and founded the city of Philadelphia. His colony flourished from the beginning, and by treating the Indians with kindness and justice in his dealings with them, he secured their warm friendship, and a consequent immunity from the savage warfare to which the other colonies were subjected. There was peace between the Indians and the whites for nearly one hundred years. About the year 1710, there was a large emigration of Germans to Pennsylvania. They settled in the southern counties of the colony, which are to this day strongly marked by German characteristics.

Maryland, so called in honor of Henrietta Maria, wife of Charles I., was originally settled by a band of adventurers, under Captain William Clayborne, who went from Virginia, and established themselves on Kent Island, near the head of Chesapeake Bay. The province was granted by Charles I. to Cecil Calvert, Lord Baltimore, in 1632. The next year the first colony, consisting of 201 persons, mostly Roman Catholics, sailed for America in two vessels, called the Ark and the Dove. They landed on St. Clement's Island, on the 25th of March, 1634, and on the 27th began the settlement of St. Mary's, in what is now St. Mary's County in that State. Their first legislative assembly met in 1639, and in 1649 passed the first law ever enacted in America granting religious freedom to all persons. This memorable Act will be found in the historical sketch of the State of Maryland farther on.

In 1670, the settlement of South Carolina was begun by English colonists, who first located themselves at Port Royal, but soon removed to Charleston. The country south of Virginia was given the general name of Carolina, and was governed by the proprietors under an absurd constitution prepared by John Locke. In 1727, the King of England bought out the proprietors, and divided the territory into two provinces, called respectively North and South Carolina. Settlements in North Carolina were formed by emigrants from Virginia as early as 1653. From that time this part of the province continued to increase in population as rapidly as the southern part. A very large number of French Calvinists, about the year 1690, after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, settled in South Carolina. Some years later they were followed by a number of Swiss, Irish, and Germans.

Georgia, originally a part of Carolina, was settled in 1733, by a band of English emigrants, under General James Oglethorpe. The first settlement was made at Yamacraw Bluff, the site of the present city of Savannah. The province was named in honor of George II. of England.

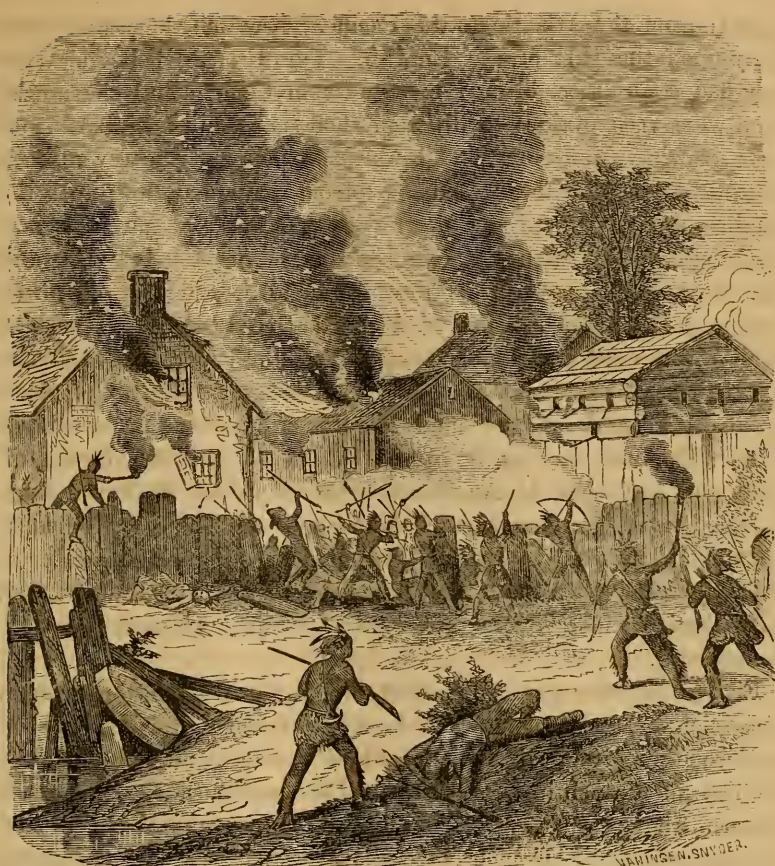
Georgia was the last settled of all the English colonies, having been founded 127 years after the landing at Jamestown. During the interval which elapsed between these two events, the French had firmly planted themselves in Canada, and had established settlements along some of the great lakes and the upper Ohio, and in portions of Indiana, Illinois, and Louisiana, and the Spanish had settled Florida and New Mexico. The English, after the settlement of Georgia, possessed thirteen vigorous and flourishing colonies in America, which were rapidly growing in importance, wealth, and power. They had an aggregate population of about 2,000,000, and were actively engaged in agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. The majority of the inhabitants were from England, or of English parentage, but there was also a liberal admixture of Scotch, Irish, French, and German elements. The prevailing religious sentiment of the New England colonies was Calvinistic. Quakerism predominated in Pennsylvania, and Roman Catholicism in Maryland; while the Church of England claimed as her children the majority of the people of New York and of the southern colonies. African slavery had become firmly established in the South, and the industry of that section had been based upon it. The institution of slavery, and the presence of considerable wealth in all the colonies of the South, had rendered it useless for the better classes of the people to labor for their own support, and had engendered habits of aristocratic luxury, while the climate had cast over all ranks that fatal spell of indolence and lack of energy which has always been the bane of that section. In the Northern colonies labor was a necessity with all classes. They had been originally poorer in wealth than their Southern neighbors, and had also a less generous climate, and a soil which required to be worked with the utmost energy and fidelity. Nature did but little for them, and they were forced to make up the deficiency by their own efforts, a necessity which, though hard at first, eventually proved their greatest blessing. They were thus trained in habits of patient and intelligent industry, which they have left to their children. By the period of which we are writing (1732) they had made their bleak country to blossom as a rose, had established thriving cities and

towns, and, besides laying the sure foundations of an enormous system of manufactures and trade, had already acquired considerable wealth. Learning and the refining arts were common amongst them. England, it is true, did much to hamper and destroy the industry of all the colonies, hoping by this short-sighted policy to ensure their dependence upon her, but American energy flourished in spite of the mother country.

Nor were the material interests of the country the only ones consulted. One of the very first cares of the settlers was to establish a system of common school education. This system was simple enough at first, but it steadily improved, as the colonies continued to prosper. Schools were established in Virginia in 1621; in the Plymouth Colony soon after, and in New Amsterdam shortly after its settlement. In 1637, Harvard College was founded in Massachusetts; in 1692, William and Mary College was established in Virginia; in 1701, Yale College was founded in Connecticut; in 1738, the College of New Jersey was established; and in 1754, King's (now Columbia) College was founded in New York. With the exception of William and Mary College, which was destroyed by fire during the late civil war, all of these institutions are in operation to-day.

It does not belong to this portion of our work to present a detailed statement of the difficulties which lay in the path of the colonies during the first century after the settlement of the country. A more minute account will be presented in the historical sketches of the States, and we must confine ourselves here to a mere general outline of the progress of events.

The first settlers found the Indians very friendly, and for some time maintained kindly relations with them; but as the number of the whites increased, decided encroachments were made upon the hunting grounds of the savages, and this, with various other causes of quarrel, brought about a series of long and bloody wars with the Indians, which continued with but slight intermission from the death of King Powhatan, the great Virginian chief and the friend of the whites, in 1622, until the red men were driven west of the Mississippi, after the close of the second war with England. They were expelled from the greater number of the Atlantic States, or forced to submit to the authority of the whites, by the close of the Revolution. Their power was broken in Virginia by the death of Opecanough, in 1644; in New England by the death of King Philip, in 1676; and in the Carolinas by the destruction of the Yemassee, in 1715. West



BURNING OF DEERFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS.

of the mountains and along the northern frontier they were troublesome for many years later.

The French, as we have said, had been as energetic as the English in colonizing America. They had made Canada a thriving province, had settled Acadie, and had established a line of posts between Montreal and New Orleans. There were sixty of these posts in all, some of which, as Fort Duquesne (Pittsburg), Detroit, Kaskaskia, Vincennes, and New Orleans, have since become important cities. They were located with an almost intuitive perception of their importance in securing the command of the country, and, as they completely hemmed in the settlements of the English, were not slow in exciting the alarm and jealousy of Great Britain, who claimed the entire

country from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Nor was the jealousy entirely upon the part of the English. The French, believing that they had securely established themselves in Canada and the north-west, were very anxious to dislodge their powerful neighbors from their growing possessions, and towards the close of the seventeenth century began to incite the Indians to commit depredations upon the English colonies, supplying them with arms and ammunition, and sometimes joining with them in such expeditions. New England and New York suffered severely from them, and several towns (Dover, N. H., Schenectady, N. Y., and Deerfield and Haverhill, Mass.,) were destroyed by bands of Indians, or French and Indians, and their inhabitants massacred or carried into captivity. Open hostilities between the French and English in America broke out in 1690. This war was really caused by the English Revolution of 1688, and is known in American history as King William's War. It lasted seven years, and was terminated by the Treaty of Ryswick, September 20th, 1697. During its continuance the English colonies suffered greatly from the incursions of the French and Indians, and, in retaliation, made several attempts to conquer Canada, but were unsuccessful.

Five years after the Peace of Ryswick, the War of the Spanish Succession, or, as it is known in America, Queen Anne's War, began in Europe (in 1702). It soon spread to America, and embroiled the English and French in this country. The English settlements on the western frontier of New England were almost annihilated by the Indians, while the French were unusually active. Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island made a combined attempt in 1707 to conquer Acadie, but without success. In 1710, an expedition from Boston drove the French out of Acadie, and annexed the province to the British Crown, with the name of Nova Scotia, which it still bears. In 1711, two vigorous efforts were made to conquer Canada, but both proved unsuccessful. On the 11th of April, 1713, the Peace of Utrecht closed the war, "and the land had rest for thirty years."

King George's War, or, as it is called in European history, the War of the Austrian Succession, began in Europe in March, 1744, and soon extended to America. It lasted a little over four years, and was brought to a close by the Treaty of Aix la Chapelle, October 18th, 1748. The principal event of this war was the capture of Louisburg, the strongest position of the French in America, by a vol-

unteer force from New England, led by William Pepperell, a wealthy merchant of Maine. This event did much to encourage the martial spirit of the colonists, and was hailed with delight in the mother country. At the conclusion of peace, however, Louisburg was restored to the French.

In 1749, the Governor of Virginia received orders from England to grant to the "Ohio Company" half a million acres of land lying on the Ohio River, and between the Monongahela and the Kanawha. This region was claimed by France, and as soon as the English company began to form settlements in it, they were resisted by the French commander at Fort Duquesne, to whom the authorities of the province of Virginia resolved to address a letter of remonstrance, before preparing to meet force with force. Their message was entrusted to George Washington, then a young man of less than twenty-two years of age, but with a reputation for bravery, prudence, and ability far beyond his years. He performed the long and dangerous journey between the Virginian frontier and Fort Duquesne, delivered the letter, and returned with the reply of the French commandant, who positively refused to comply with the demand of the English. Virginia then prepared to maintain her claim by force of arms, and an expedition, in which Washington was assigned the second place, and of which he finally became the commander, was dispatched towards the Ohio, to occupy the country. On the 28th of May, 1754, it was attacked and cut to pieces by a French force under Jumonville, who was slain in the fight. This affair began the determined struggle which is known in our history as the Old French, or the French and Indian War, and in Europe as the Seven Years' War. Hostilities, however, were not immediately declared in Europe. France and England did not come to blows in the Old World until about the year 1756. Each country professed to be at peace with the other, but both were busily engaged in sending aid to their colonies. The principal events of the campaign of 1755 in America were as follows: I. The unfortunate expedition of General Braddock against the French at Fort Duquesne, in which Washington first displayed those great qualities which won for him the leadership of our armies in the struggle for liberty. Braddock's army was ambushed by the Indian allies of the French, about ten miles from Fort Duquesne, and cut to pieces, the general himself being mortally wounded. II. The expedition against Niagara and Frontenac, led by Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts. This attempt proved abortive. Shirley was delayed

by storms and sickness among his troops, and his Indian allies, who belonged to the tribes of the Six Nations, deserted him to such an extent that their aid amounted to nothing. Disheartened, he abandoned his attempt and retraced his steps eastward. III. The expedition against the French posts on the Bay of Fundy, led by General Winslow, of New England. This was successful. The posts were captured and held by the English. Subsequently General Winslow received positive orders from his Government to remove the neutral French from Acadie to the English colonies, which duty he performed. There was no actual necessity for the removal of these people, and this harsh and cruel measure of the English Government caused great suffering to them. IV. The expedition against Crown Point, led by Sir William Johnson. Johnson's troops were principally from Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Hampshire. He met the French, under Dieskau, at the head of Lake George, on the 6th of September, 1755, and was at first repulsed by them, but, thanks to General Lyman, the second in command, and an American, he succeeded in rallying his army and utterly routing the French, whose commander was fatally wounded and made a prisoner. He lost the fruits of his success, however, by lingering on the field of his victory until it was too late in the season to advance upon Crown Point.

Dieskau was succeeded by the Marquis de Montcalm, to whom was assigned the command of all the French forces in America. He was an officer of experience, energy, and skill, and opened the campaign of 1756 with a series of successes which continued for two years, and which taught the English that he was no insignificant foe. In 1756, he captured Oswego, with its immense military stores, which had been placed there by the English. In 1757, he compelled Fort William Henry, at the head of Lake George, to surrender, a disaster which was made the more appalling by the massacre of a part of the garrison, after the capitulation, by the Indian allies of the French.

Thus far fortune had smiled upon the French, but their enemies were not disheartened. The English people were convinced that the disasters which had befallen their arms were due to the incompetency of their Government, and demanded a change of the Ministry. The popular demand was unwillingly complied with, and William Pitt was placed by the king at the head of affairs. From the moment that his great mind began to direct the war, the prospects of the English improved. Pitt appreciated the efforts the Americans had made during the struggle, and called on them to volunteer for fresh

service under able generals who were sent out from England. His calls were well responded to, and when the campaign of 1758 opened, the English took the field with 50,000 men, commanded by officers of experience and skill. The principal events of this campaign were: the capture of Louisburg by Generals Amherst and Wolfe, after a siege of fifty days; the capture of Fort Frontenac, on Lake Ontario, by a force of Colonial troops, under Colonel Bradstreet; the capture of Fort Duquesne, in which the forces of the colony of Virginia were commanded by Washington; and the defeat of Abercrombie at Ticonderoga. The British in this engagement attacked Ticonderoga with a force four times as great as that with which Montcalm defended the position. Their army was commanded by General Abercrombie and Lord Howe, the latter of whom was an officer of great promise, and warmly loved by the army. Howe was killed at the head of his column, and Abercrombie proved himself so incompetent for the task before him, that Montcalm defeated him, and compelled him to retreat with the loss of 2000 men. This event closed the campaign, and more than counterbalanced the successes of the English at the outset.

The English authorities at once removed Abercrombie, and put Amherst in his place, who opened the campaign of 1759 by advancing upon Ticonderoga and Crown Point, from which the French retreated without risking an engagement. About the same time Sir William Johnson took Niagara, and routed a large French force which was marching to its relief. On the 13th of September, 1759, the great event of the war occurred. Quebec was taken by the British army, under General Wolfe, after a battle on the heights of Abraham, in which both Wolfe and Montcalm were killed. The capture of Quebec is justly regarded as one of the most remarkable events in modern history, not only because it decided the war in America, but because it broke the power of France and confirmed that of England in the New World. "It gave to the English tongue and the institutions of the Germanic race," says Bancroft, "the unexplored and seemingly infinite west and north." The war in America virtually ceased after the fall of Quebec, but continued on the ocean and in Europe for nearly four years longer. Peace was restored by the Treaty of Paris, in 1763, by which Canada and its dependencies, including the posts along the lakes and the Ohio, were forever ceded to Great Britain.

This very treaty, however, was the cause of another war. The French, by their friendly and conciliatory policy, had generally won the friendship of the Indians, but the English, by their arrogance and

harshness, had rarely failed to excite their hostility, and the transfer of Canada and the northwest made by the Treaty of Paris was bitterly resented by the Indians of that region. One of their chiefs, Pontiac, a leader of great courage and ability, persuaded his countrymen to join him in an attempt to drive out the English. He was successful, and the first blow was struck in June, 1763. In the two weeks which followed the outbreak, the savages captured all the forts west of Oswego, except Niagara, Detroit, and Pittsburg, and massacred the garrisons. No English settler of either sex or any age who fell into the hands of the savages was spared. Siege was laid to Detroit, which was invested for six weeks. It was finally relieved, and the Indians were in their turn pressed with so much vigor that they were compelled to sue for peace. Pontiac, however, refused to yield to his conquerors, and set off towards the Mississippi, inciting the western tribes against the English, until he was murdered in 1769.

The old French war was the only one of the struggles between France and England in which the Colonies bore a part, which originated in America. These conflicts, though they at length resulted in removing the hostile French and Indians from the very doors of the Colonies, left them greatly exhausted in both men and money. They had shown the devotion of America to the mother country in a most conspicuous manner, and had certainly earned for the colonists at least the considerate forbearance of the Home Government. As for the Americans themselves, they had learned valuable lessons in modern warfare, had seen for themselves that British generals were not infallible, nor British troops invincible, and had gained a very decided confidence in their own prowess as shown by their achievements.

Great Britain, however, did not regard her Colonies with either motherly wisdom or kindness. Jealous of their growing commercial and manufacturing wealth, she sought in numerous ways to cripple their industry. Always a law-abiding people, the Americans bore all the harsh measures of the mother country in silence, so long as they were kept within the limits sanctioned by the constitution of the realm. In 1761, however, the Home Government threw off its constitutional restraints. A law was enacted by Parliament, empowering sheriffs and customs officers to enter stores and private dwellings, upon the authority of "writs of assistance," or general search warrants, and search for goods which it was suspected had not paid duty.

The first attempt to use these writs was made in Massachusetts,

where obedience was refused to them by the indignant people, on the ground that they were issued in violation of the laws of England and of the Colony. The persons refusing obedience to them were brought to trial. James Otis, the eloquent attorney for the Crown, refused to sustain them, resigned his office, and in the trials which ensued pleaded the cause of the people with such force that, in the language of John Adams, "every man of an immense crowded audience appeared to go away ready to take arms against the writs of assistance." The judges decided to avoid a decision, and the writs were never used, though they were granted in secret.

It was now proposed by the British Government to levy a direct tax upon the Colonies, and at the same time to deny them any voice in the imposition of this tax. An Act for this purpose, generally called the Stamp Act, was passed by the Commons on the 22d of March, 1765, by a majority of nine-tenths of the members, and on the 1st of April by the House of Lords with scarcely a dissenting voice. The king at once signed the bill. This Act required that every written or printed paper used in trade, in order to be valid, should have affixed to it a stamp of a denomination to be determined by the character of the paper, and that no stamp should be for a less sum than one shilling. The Colonies had earnestly protested against the measure while it was being discussed in Parliament, but the only notice which the Government took of these protests was to send over a body of troops for the purpose of enforcing obedience to the Stamp Act, and the Ministers were authorized by Parliament to compel the Colonies to find "quarters, fuel, cider or rum, candles and other necessities" for these troops.

Such infamous measures produced great excitement in America. Patrick Henry introduced a series of resolutions into the General Assembly of Virginia, which were adopted by that body, declaring that the Colonists were bound to pay only such taxes as should be levied by their own legislatures. The Legislature of Massachusetts authorized the courts of that province to proceed to transact their business without the use of stamps. In the other Colonies the opposition was strong, but not so vehement, and associations called "Sons of Liberty" were formed all over the country, consisting of men who pledged themselves to oppose the Stamp Act and defend the rights of the Colonies when assailed. The determination not to use the stamps was general, and when the 1st of November, 1765, the day on which the hated law was to go into operation, arrived, it was found that all

the officials appointed to distribute the stamps had resigned their places. The bells in all the Colonies were tolled, and the flags lowered in mourning for the death of liberty in America. The merchants pledged themselves to import no more English goods, and the people agreed to use no more articles of English manufacture until the law was repealed.

Previous to this, in June, the Legislature of Massachusetts had issued a call for a general Congress of delegates from all the Colonies to meet in New York, on the first Tuesday in October, to consider the state of affairs. Nine of the Colonies were represented in this body, which met at the appointed time. The Congress drew up a declaration of rights for the Colonies, a memorial to Parliament, and a petition to the king, in which, after asserting their loyalty to the Crown and laws of England, they insisted upon their right to be taxed only by their own representatives. These documents were submitted to and approved by the provincial legislatures, and were laid before the British Government in the name of the United Colonies.

These popular demonstrations brought up the subject in Parliament, and the friends of America urgently demanded a repeal of the Act. Pitt and Burke advocated the repeal with powerful eloquence. The Commons examined a number of witnesses as to the temper and condition of the Colonies. One of these was Benjamin Franklin, who was sojourning in London. He told the House that his countrymen were not possessed of a sufficient amount of gold and silver to buy the stamps, that they were already greatly burdened by debts contracted by them in support of the recent war, in which they had borne more than their just share of the expenses, that they were loyal and attached to the mother country, but that the harsh acts of the Government could only result in destroying their loyal friendship, that unless the Acts complained of were repealed, the Colonies would cease to trade with England, and that they would never consent to pay any taxes except those imposed upon them by their own legislatures. Influenced by these representations, the Parliament resolved to retrace its steps, and on the 18th of March, 1766, the Stamp Act was repealed. The repeal was celebrated with great rejoicings in both America and England, the latter country having become alarmed by the decrease in its trade with the Colonies.

The British Government, however, did not relinquish its determination to tax America, and on the 29th of June, 1767, the king signed an Act of Parliament imposing duties on glass, tea, paper, and

some other articles imported into the Colonies. The Americans met this new aggression with a revival of their societies for discontinuing the importation of English goods. Massachusetts led this opposition, and in Boston the custom house officers were mobbed for demanding duties on the cargo of a schooner owned by John Hancock. The officers sought refuge from the mob in the fort in the harbor, and in September, 1768, the Government ordered General Gage to occupy "the insolent town of Boston" with a strong military force. This measure but increased the disaffection of the Bostonians, and on the 5th of March, 1770, a collision occurred between the citizens and the troops, in which three of the former were killed and five wounded. This "massacre," as it was called, produced great excitement in all the Colonies. The soldiers who had fired on the crowd were tried for murder in Boston, and were defended by John Adams and Josiah Quincy, who were resolved that they should have impartial justice dealt out to them. The evidence showing that the troops did not fire until provoked to it by the people, the jury acquitted all the prisoners but two, who were convicted of manslaughter.

The feeling of the Colonies was so unmistakable that Parliament resolved to remove the obnoxious duties. The king, however, expressly ordered that at least one nominal duty should be retained, as he did not mean to surrender his right to tax the Colonies. In accordance with this command, a duty of three per cent. on tea was retained, and all the others removed. The Americans, however, objected to the principle of taxation without representation, and not to the amount of the tax, and resolved to discontinue the use of tea until the duty should be repealed. Meetings for this purpose were held in the principal seaports of the country. When it was ascertained that several ships loaded with tea were on their way to Boston, a large meeting of citizens was called, at which it was resolved to send the vessels back to England. Three ships loaded with tea reached Boston soon after, and their owners, in compliance with the public demand, consented to order them back to England, if the Governor would allow them to leave the port. Governor Hutchinson, however, refused to allow the ships to go to sea, and on the night of the 18th of December, a band of citizens, disguised as Indians, seized the vessels, emptied the tea into the harbor, and then quietly dispersed without harming the vessels. This bold act greatly incensed the British Government, and Parliament adopted severe measures for the purpose of punishing the Colonies. The harbor of Boston was closed

to all commerce, and the Government of the Colony ordered to be removed to Salem, soldiers were to be quartered on all the Colonies at the expense of the citizens, and it was required that all officers who should be prosecuted for enforcing these measures should be sent to England for trial.

The excitement in the Colonies over these acts was tremendous. Boston was everywhere regarded as the victim of British tyranny, and was in constant receipt of assurances of sympathy, and of money and provisions for the poor of the town, sent to her from all parts of the country. Salem refused to accept the transfer of the seat of Government, and the authorities of Marblehead requested the merchants of Boston to use their port free of charge. Even in London £30,000 were subscribed for the relief of Boston. The excitement continued to increase throughout the country, and the breach between the Colonies and the mother country grew wider every day.

On the 5th of September, 1774, a Congress of 55 delegates, representing all the Colonies except Georgia, whose royalist governor prevented an election, met in Philadelphia. It was composed of the ablest men in America, among whom were Washington, Patrick Henry, Richard Henry Lee, Edward Rutledge, John Rutledge, Christopher Gadsden, Samuel Adams, John Adams, Roger Sherman, Philip Livingston, William Livingston, John Jay, Dr. Witherspoon, Peyton Randolph, and Charles Thomson. This body, after considering the grievances of the Colonies, adopted a declaration setting forth their rights as subjects of the British crown to a just share in the making of their own laws, and in imposing their own taxes, to the right of a speedy trial by jury in the community in which the offence should be committed, and to the right to hold public meetings and petition for redress of grievances. A protest against the unconstitutional Acts of the British Parliament was adopted, as well as a petition to the king, an appeal to the British people, and a memorial to the people of the Colonies. The Congress proposed, as a means of redress, the formation of an "American Association," whose members should pledge themselves not to trade with Great Britain or the West Indies, or with any persons engaged in the slave trade, and to refrain from using British goods or tea. The papers drawn up by the Congress were transmitted to England. The Earl of Chatham (William Pitt) was deeply impressed by them, and declared in Parliament that "all attempts to impose servitude upon such a mighty continental nation must be vain." The English people, as a general rule, were

sincerely anxious that the demands of the Americans should be complied with, and even Lord North, the Prime Minister, who carried the measures in question through Parliament, was in his heart opposed to them, and only continued in office to uphold them at the express command of the king, who was obstinately determined upon whipping his American subjects into submission.

Few of the leaders of the Colonists now doubted that hostilities would soon begin, and with a view to prepare for the emergency, the Colonies began to take steps for raising and arming troops at a minute's warning. These preparations were especially vigorous in Massachusetts, and alarmed General Gage, who fortified Boston neck, and commenced to seize all the arms and munitions of war he could find in the province. The Colonial authorities of Massachusetts had established small stores of arms and ammunition at Worcester and Concord, and General Gage resolved to secure them. On the night of the 18th of April, 1775, he sent a large detachment of troops to destroy the stores at Concord. It was his design that the movement should be secret, but he was so closely watched by the patriots that the march of his troops was instantly discovered, and the alarm spread through the country by messengers. The people at once flew to arms, and when the troops reached Lexington, a village half way between Boston and Concord, on the morning of the 19th, Major Pitcairn, their commander, found his progress opposed by a considerable number of the country people. He ordered his men to fire upon them. The order was obeyed, and the citizens were driven off with a loss of eight killed and several wounded. The troops then proceeded to Concord, where they destroyed some stores, but upon reaching the north bridge over Concord River, they met with a determined resistance from the people, who had now assembled in considerable force, and were obliged to retreat to Boston. The Colonists followed them closely on their retreat, pouring in a galling fire from every convenient point. The total loss of the British on this occasion was 273 men killed and wounded.

This battle, if a battle it can be called, put an end to the long dispute between America and Great Britain, and inaugurated the Revolution. Previous to this, no one ever heard, as Jefferson remarks, "a whisper of a disposition to separate from Great Britain," but after the first surprise of the shock had worn off, the people of the Colonies commenced to take up arms for freedom. On the 22d of April, the authorities of Massachusetts ordered that a New England army of



RUINS OF TICONDEROGA.

30,000 men should be put in the field, and that Massachusetts should furnish 13,000 of these. Troops were raised with rapidity under this authority, and by the 1st of May, an army of 20,000 men was encamped before Boston.

In the other Colonies equally important measures were set on foot. The fortresses of Ticonderoga and Crown Point were seized by volunteers from Connecticut and Vermont, led by Benedict Arnold and Ethan Allen. The cannon and stores taken with them were of incalculable service to the Americans, who were sadly in need of military supplies.

In Virginia, South Carolina, and Georgia, the people took up arms as soon as the news from the North was received, and in North Carolina a convention was held at Charlotte, in Mecklenburg county, which body, in May, 1775, proclaimed the independence of the people of North Carolina, and prepared to resist the authority of Great Britain by force of arms.

On the 10th of May, 1775, the second Colonial Congress met at Philadelphia. It was composed of the most eminent men of the country, among whom were Washington, Franklin, Hancock, John Adams, Samuel Adams, Richard Henry Lee, Patrick Henry, Jay, George Clinton, Jefferson, and others. The proceedings of this body were eminently moderate. The first step taken was to elect John Hancock President of the Congress. A petition to the king was drawn up, and forwarded to him, denying any intention to separate from Great Britain, and asking only for redress of the wrongs of which the Colonies complained. A federal Union of the Colonies was formed, and the Congress assumed and exercised the general government of the country. Measures were taken to establish an army, to procure military supplies, and to fit out a navy. A loan of \$2,000,000 was authorized, and the faith of the "United Colonies" pledged for its payment. The troops before Boston were organized as a Continental army, and placed under the control of the Congress, and Washington was elected Commander-in-Chief. As soon as he received his commission, he set out for Boston, but did not arrive there until after the occurrence of the events now to be related.

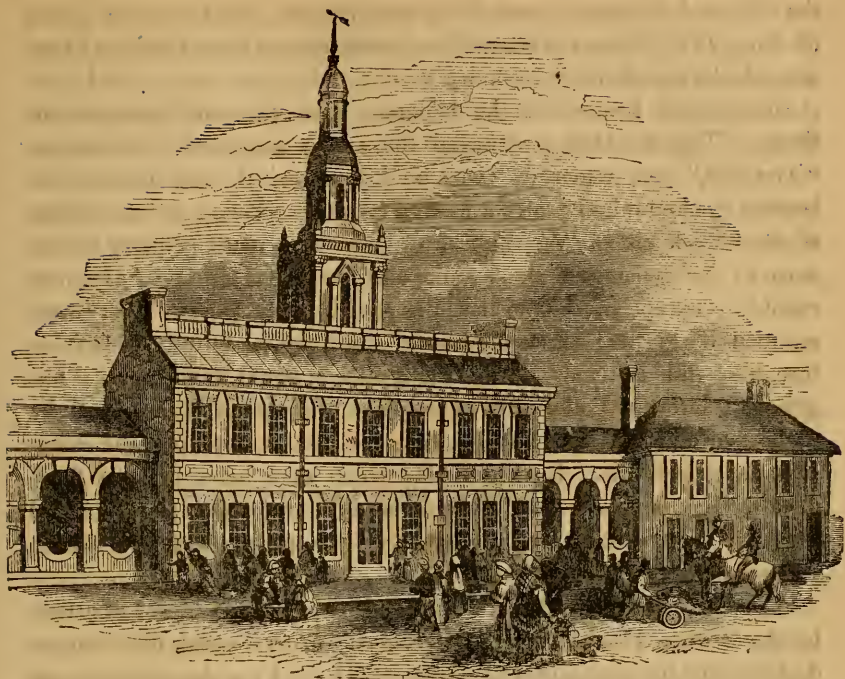
Alarmed by the presence of the American forces before Boston, the British commander in that town formed the plan of seizing and fortifying Bunker Hill in Charlestown. His plan was betrayed to the Americans, who at once sent a force under Colonel William Prescott to fortify the hill. Prescott misunderstood his instructions, and proceeded to fortify Breed's Hill, which, though inferior in height to Bunker Hill, was nearer to Boston, and more perfectly commanded the harbor. He threw up a slight breastwork during the night of the 16th of June, which was discovered by the British on the morning of the 17th. A force of 3000 regulars was detailed to carry the hill, assisted by the fire of the royal ships in the harbor. The American force was scarcely more than half this number, and consisted of raw and undisciplined provincials. They repulsed two assaults, however, inflicting upon their enemies a loss of 1045 men killed and wounded; but were at length, after their ammunition had given out, driven from the hill. They retreated across Charlestown neck to Cambridge, which was held by the Continental army, having lost 449 men killed, wounded, and prisoners. Among the killed was General Joseph Warren, of Boston, one of the most valuable of the American leaders. This battle, though an actual defeat for the Americans, was regarded by them as a victory, inasmuch as it demonstrated their

ability to hold their ground against the regular troops of Great Britain, and inspired them with a confidence which attended them during the entire war.

Washington reached the army before Boston several days after the battle of Bunker Hill, and immediately took command. He was received with enthusiasm by the troops and people. He was accompanied by General Charles Lee, an officer who had seen service before. Congress had appointed a full complement of general officers for the army, all of whom were with their commands. The Major-Generals were: Charles Lee, of Virginia, Philip Schuyler, of New York, Artemas Ward, of Massachusetts, and Israel Putnam, of Connecticut. The Brigadiers were: Horatio Gates, Seth Pomeroy, Richard Montgomery, David Wooster, William Heath, Joseph Spencer, John Thomas, John Sullivan, and Nathanael Greene. Of all these, Gates was the only man who possessed sufficient experience to be of much assistance to Washington in the task of perfecting the organization of the army, which was in reality little better than a mere rabble in discipline, clothing, and equipment. By extraordinary exertions, Washington and Gates at length succeeded in bringing the force to a tolerably effective condition. Boston was at once regularly besieged, and closely invested until March 17th, 1776, when, Washington having secured a position from which his cannon could render the city untenable, the British forces evacuated the place, and sailed for Halifax. They were accompanied by a large body of loyalists, who feared to remain in the town after its occupation by the Americans.

Meanwhile, during the progress of the siege of Boston, other operations had been going on elsewhere. General Montgomery had been sent into Canada with a small, weak force, to conquer that province, which was believed to be disaffected towards England. His second in command was Benedict Arnold, who rendered brilliant service during the campaign. The principal event of the invasion was a joint attack upon Quebec by Montgomery and Arnold, which was unsuccessful, and in which Montgomery was killed and Arnold wounded. The expedition accomplished nothing of importance, and was compelled to return to the Colonies, after suffering great losses and considerable hardships.

A British fleet attacked and burned Falmouth (now Portland, Maine) on the New England coast, and committed many outrages on the coast of Virginia. A powerful force, under Sir Peter Parker, attacked Fort Sullivan, in the harbor of Charleston, South Carolina,



INDEPENDENCE HALL IN 1776.

and was repulsed with heavy loss. The Americans managed during the year to fit out several cruisers, which were fortunate enough to capture a number of prizes loaded with military stores for the British army, and which proved of infinite service to the Americans.

Indeed, these captures seemed providential, for often when the stock of arms and munitions was running low, a cruiser would make its way into port with a prize laden with the supplies most needed, which it had taken from the enemy.

Congress took measures for the active prosecution of the war. Supplies were drawn from the West Indies, and a regular system for that purpose inaugurated; powder mills and cannon foundries were provided for; thirteen frigates were ordered to be built (a few of which eventually got to sea); a committee of war, one of finance, and a secret committee, to which was entrusted the negotiations of the Colonies with the individuals and authorities of foreign States, were appointed; and an energetic, if defective, system of government for

the "United Colonies" was fairly established. Finally, on the 4th of July, 1776, Congress adopted a declaration on behalf of the Colonies, declaring their independence of the English crown, and proclaiming that henceforth the Colonies were free and independent States. This declaration changed the entire nature of the struggle. "The war," says Bancroft, "was no longer a civil war; Britain was become to the United States a foreign country. Every former subject of the British king in the thirteen Colonies now owed primary allegiance to the dynasty of the people, and became citizens of the new republic; except in this, everything remained as before; every man retained his rights; the Colonies did not dissolve into a state of nature, nor did the new people undertake a social revolution. The affairs of internal police and government were carefully retained by each separate State, which could, each for itself, enter upon the career of domestic reforms. But the States which were henceforth independent of Britain, were not independent of one another; the United States of America assumed powers over war, peace, foreign alliances, and commerce."

As he supposed that New York would be the next object of attack by the British, Washington transferred his army to that place immediately after his occupation of Boston. He had not long to wait, for in June, Admiral Lord Howe entered New York bay with a formidable fleet and 30,000 troops, consisting principally of German mercenaries hired by the King of England. The troops were landed on Staten Island, and preparations made for attacking the city of New York. Lord Howe issued a proclamation to the people of America, offering a free pardon to all who would lay down their arms and accept the king's clemency; but the proclamation produced no effect whatever upon the patriots, who were convinced that they could expect but a poor regard for their rights and liberties at the hands of King George.

Washington's force was vastly inferior to that of the enemy in every respect. He was compelled to divide it, and to place a portion of it on Long Island, in order to cover the approaches to the city of New York. The force on Long Island was attacked and defeated by the British on the 27th of August, 1776, and compelled to abandon the island. The enemy followed up their successes, and finally obliged Washington to give up Manhattan Island and the lower Hudson. Disasters now fell thickly upon the Americans, and by the close of the year Washington had been driven across the Delaware,

and had with him less than 4000 half-starved and miserably equipped troops. The British had by this time taken possession of the island of Rhode Island, and had made a descent upon Baskingridge, New Jersey, and had captured General Charles Lee. By December, 1776, the cause of the Colonies seemed so desperate that the people generally began to abandon the hope of liberty and apply themselves to the task of making their peace, individually, with the royal authorities. Influenced by this state of affairs, Sir William Howe, the British Commander-in-Chief, refrained from making a vigorous effort to follow up his antagonist and crush him.

At this hour, when everything was so gloomy, Washington was calm and hopeful. He had expected reverses, and they did not dismay him. He did what lay in his power to cheer and encourage the little band of heroes who remained faithful to him, and watched the enemy with sleepless vigilance, and at length discovered an opportunity for striking a powerful blow in behalf of his country. Perceiving that the advanced wing of the English army occupied an exposed position at Trenton, New Jersey, he crossed the Delaware with his army, in open boats, in the midst of snow and ice, on the night of the 25th of December, and falling suddenly upon the enemy at daybreak the next morning, completely routed them, capturing 1000 prisoners, 1000 stand of arms, 6 brass field pieces, and 4 standards. On the night of the 26th, he recrossed the Delaware, and returned to his camp in Pennsylvania. On the 3d of January, 1777, he again defeated a strong British detachment at Princeton, New Jersey, and in a short while had cleared that State almost entirely of the enemy.

These victories, so brilliant and so audacious, completely startled the British, who had believed the war virtually over in the North, and aroused, as if by magic, the drooping spirits of the Americans. Congress, which had remained unmoved by the disasters of 1776, now inaugurated a series of more vigorous measures than had yet been determined upon. Washington was invested with almost dictatorial powers; troops were ordered to be enlisted for three years, instead of one year, which was the term of the first levies; a central government was established, and a constitution, known as the "Articles of Confederation," was adopted by the States (Maryland did not ratify these articles until the next year); and agents were sent to foreign countries to procure the recognition of the independence of the United States.

When the campaign of 1777 opened, the prospects of the country

had so far improved that Washington found himself at the head of an army of 7000 men. Sir William Howe made repeated efforts to bring on a general engagement, but Washington skilfully avoided it, and the British General finally withdrew his army from New Jersey, and occupied Staten Island. Soon after this, he sailed with 16,000 men for the Chesapeake, and, landing at Elk River, in Maryland, advanced through Delaware towards Philadelphia, which was the seat of the Federal Government. Washington endeavored to check the progress of the enemy on the Brandywine, September 11th, but was defeated with a loss of 1000 men. The British occupied Philadelphia a few days later, and Congress withdrew to Lancaster, and then to York, Pennsylvania. On the 4th of October, Washington made a vigorous attack upon the British force at Germantown, 7 miles from Philadelphia, but was repulsed with severe loss. This event closed the campaign in the Middle States.

In the North, the American forces had been more successful. General Burgoyne, with 7000 regular troops and a considerable force of Canadians and Indians, entered the United States from Canada during the summer of 1777, and advanced as far as Fort Edward, on the upper Hudson. From this point a strong detachment was sent to Bennington, in Vermont, to destroy the stores collected there by the Americans. This force was routed with a loss of 800 men, by the militia of New Hampshire and Vermont, under General Stark. The battle occurred at Bennington, on the 16th of August, 1777. Burgoyne then advanced towards Saratoga, New York, making his way through the woods until he reached the vicinity of that place, when he was met by the American army, under General Gates, to whom the command of the Northern department had been recently assigned. An indecisive battle was fought between the two armies on the 19th of September, and a second and more decisive engagement occurred on the 7th of October, on nearly the same ground. Burgoyne was considerably worsted, and endeavored to return to Canada, but finding his retreat cut off, surrendered his entire army to the American forces, upon favorable terms, on the 17th of October.

This victory, the most important of the war, greatly elated the Americans and their friends in Europe, while it depressed the Tories or loyalists in America to an equal degree. It advanced the bills of the Continental Congress, and had the effect of inducing the French Government, which had secretly encouraged and aided the Colonies from the first, to recognize the independence of the States, and in

February, 1778, a treaty of friendship, commerce, and alliance was signed at Paris, by the French King and the American Commissioners. Great Britain seemed to realize now, for the first time, that she was about to lose her Colonies, and endeavored to repair her mistakes. On the 11th of March, 1778, Parliament repealed the Acts which had proved so obnoxious to the Colonies, and subsequently sent three commissioners to negotiate a reconciliation with the Americans. As these commissioners had no authority to consent to the independence of the States, Congress refused to treat with them until the king should withdraw his forces from the country, and rejected the terms offered by the British Government.

Washington's army went into winter quarters at the Valley Forge, 20 miles from Philadelphia, about the middle of December, 1777. The troops suffered terribly from exposure, hunger, and the dreadful privations to which they were subjected, but remained with their colors through it all. Their devotion was rewarded in the spring by the news of the alliance with France, which reached them in May, 1778, and was greeted with demonstrations of the liveliest joy.

The first result of the French alliance was the arrival in the Delaware of a fleet, under Count D'Estaing. D'Estaing had been ordered to blockade the British fleet in the Delaware, and arrived off the Capes in June, but before his arrival the enemy's ships had taken refuge in Raritan Bay. The British army in Philadelphia was now commanded by Sir Henry Clinton, who had succeeded General Howe. On the 18th of June, Clinton withdrew his force from that city, and began his retreat through New Jersey to New York. Washington pursued him promptly, and came up with him, on the 28th of June, on the plains of Monmouth, near the town of Freehold, N. J., where a severe engagement took place. Although the result was indecisive, Clinton resumed his retreat to New York, and remained there for the rest of the summer, without making any effort to resume hostilities.

In August, an attempt was made by the Americans, assisted by the French fleet, to drive the British from Rhode Island, but without success. D'Estaing withdrew from the coast soon after this, and returned to the West Indies, having rendered little practical aid during his presence in American waters.

The finances of the country were now in the greatest confusion, and nothing but the wisdom and unshrinking patriotism of Robert Morris saved the infant republic from utter bankruptcy and ruin. It is worthy of remark that a grateful country suffered this man to die in

a debtor's prison. On the whole, however, the cause of the States was much improved. Besides the alliance with France, they had the secret encouragement and assistance of Spain. They had confined the British to the territory held by that army in 1776, and had a larger and better disciplined army than they had yet possessed.

In 1779, the principal military operations were transferred to the South. Savannah had been already captured on the 29th of December, 1778, by an expedition sent from New York by Sir Henry Clinton, and by the summer of 1779, the whole State of Georgia was in the hands of the British. In September, 1779, the French fleet and a land force of Americans under General Lincoln attempted to recover Savannah, but were repulsed with a loss of 1000 men.

On the 16th of June, 1779, Spain declared war against England, and, in the summer of that year, the French King, influenced by the appeals of Lafayette, who had visited France for that purpose, agreed to send another fleet and a strong body of troops to the assistance of the Americans. The cruisers of the United States were doing considerable damage to the British commerce at sea and in British waters, and Paul Jones, on the 23d of September, fought and won one of the most desperate battles known to naval warfare, in plain sight of the English coast.

Sir Henry Clinton, in obedience to instructions received from England, now withdrew his forces from Rhode Island, and concentrated his entire command at New York. Early in 1780, he proceeded with the main body of his troops to the South, leaving General Mifflin in command at New York, and at once laid siege to Charleston, South Carolina, which was held by General Lincoln with a force of 2500 men. The city was surrendered with its garrison, on the 17th of May, 1780, after a nominal defence. By the 1st of June, the British were in possession of the whole State of South Carolina, and Clinton was so well convinced of the completeness of its subjugation that he went back to New York on the 5th of June, leaving the command in the South to Lord Cornwallis.

Small bands of partisan troops, under Marion, Sumter, Pickens, and other no less devoted though less famous leaders, now sprang up in various parts of the State, and maintained a vigorous guerilla warfare, from which the enemy suffered greatly. Congress soon after sent an army under General Gates into South Carolina to drive the enemy from the State. Gates' success at Saratoga had made him the idol of the hour, and there were persons who seriously desired that he

should even supersede Washington himself; but his northern laurels soon wilted in the South. Cornwallis met him at Camden, routed him with a loss of 1000 men, and drove him into North Carolina. By the close of the summer, the only American force in South Carolina was the little band under General Marion. Cornwallis, feeling assured that his communications with Charleston were safe, followed Gates' beaten army into North Carolina, towards the middle of September. On the 7th of October, a strong detachment of his army was totally defeated, with a loss of 1200 men, by the militia of North Carolina, at King's Mountain. This was a severe blow to him, and checked his advance. At the same time Marion and Pickens renewed their warfare in South Carolina so actively, and rendered Cornwallis' communications with the sea so uncertain, that he withdrew towards Charleston.

In the North, the British commander vainly endeavored to draw Washington into a general engagement, in which he felt confident that his vast preponderance of numbers would give him the victory. Washington warily avoided being caught in the trap; and on the 23d of June, General Greene inflicted such a stinging defeat upon a British force at Springfield, N. J., that Clinton withdrew to New York, and remained there for the rest of the year. After the battle of Camden, General Greene was sent to the Carolinas, to take command of Gates' army.

On the 10th of July, 1780, a French fleet and 6000 troops, all under the Count de Rochambeau, reached Newport, Rhode Island. In September, during the absence of Washington at Hartford, Conn., whither he had gone to arrange a plan of operations with the French officers, it was discovered that General Benedict Arnold, one of the most brilliant officers of the Continental army, had agreed to deliver into the hands of the British the important fortress of West Point, which he commanded at that time. The plot was promptly frustrated, and the traitor escaped, but Major André, a British officer who had concluded the arrangement with him, and whose capture had revealed the plot, was hanged as a spy.

Towards the close of the year, Great Britain having discovered that Holland and the United States were secretly negotiating a treaty of alliance, declared war against the Dutch. The war against America, however, still continued unpopular with the English people.

The campaign of 1781 opened with the brilliant victory at the Cowpens, in South Carolina, won over the British under Colonel

Tarleton by General Morgan, on the 17th of January. On the 15th of March the battle of Guilford Court House was fought in North Carolina, and resulted in a partial victory for the British. In September, 1781, the royal forces were terribly beaten in the bloody battle of Eutaw Springs, in South Carolina, and compelled to retire to the sea coast, to which they were confined until the close of the war.

Meanwhile, Cornwallis, after the battle of Guilford Court House, had advanced into Virginia, driving before him the handful of forces under Lafayette, Wayne, and Steuben, which sought to oppose his march. He occupied himself chiefly while in Virginia in destroying private property, and at length, in August, 1781, in obedience to orders from Sir Henry Clinton, to occupy a strong defensive position in Virginia, intrenched himself at Yorktown, near the entrance of the York River into Chesapeake Bay. This movement led to an immediate change in the plan of operations which had been resolved upon by Washington, whose army had been reënforced on the Hudson by the French troops under Count de Rochambeau. It had been his intention to attack the British in New York with his combined force, aided by the French fleet, but Cornwallis' situation offered such a tempting opportunity that he at once resolved to transfer his army to Virginia. Skilfully deceiving Sir Henry Clinton into the belief that New York was the threatened point, and thus preventing him from sending assistance to Cornwallis, Washington moved rapidly to Virginia, and arrived before the British works at Yorktown, with an army 12,000 strong, on the 28th of September, 1781. The enemy's position was at once invested by land, and the French fleet cut off all hope of escape by water. The siege was prosecuted with vigor, and on the 19th of October, Cornwallis surrendered his whole army, which consisted of 7000 well equipped troops.

This victory virtually closed the war. It produced the wildest joy in America, and compelled a change of Ministers in England. Lord North and his Cabinet retired from office on the 20th of March, 1782, and the new administration, perceiving the hopelessness of the struggle, resolved to discontinue the war. Orders were sent to the British commanders in America to desist from further hostilities, and on the 11th of July, 1782, Savannah was evacuated by the royal troops, which event was followed by the evacuation of Charleston on the 14th of December. A preliminary treaty of peace was signed at Paris on the 30th of November, 1782, and a formal treaty on the 3d of September, 1783. By this formal treaty Great Britain acknow-

ledged her former Colonies to be free, sovereign, and independent States, and withdrew her troops from New York on the 25th of November, 1783.

The great war was now over, and the new Republic took its place in the family of nations; but it was terribly weakened by its efforts. Its finances were in the most pitiful condition, and it had not the money to pay the troops it was about to disband, and who were really suffering for want of funds. Considerable trouble arose on this account, and it required all the great influence of Washington to allay the discontent. The army was disbanded immediately after the close of the war, and on the 23rd of December, 1783, Washington resigned his commission into the hands of Congress, and retired to his home at Mount Vernon.

It was found that the Articles of Confederation were inadequate to the necessities of the Republic, and a new Constitution was adopted by the States after much deliberation. It went into operation on the 4th of March, 1789. The city of New York was designated as the seat of Government. Washington was unanimously chosen the first President of the Republic, with John Adams as Vice-President. He went into office on the 30th of April, 1789. The first measures of his administration greatly restored the confidence of the people in the Government. Alexander Hamilton, the Secretary of the Treasury, inaugurated a series of financial reforms, which were eminently beneficial. The debts of the old Confederated Government and the debts of the States themselves, were all assumed by the United States; a bank of the United States (which went into operation in February 1794) was incorporated, and a national Mint was established at Philadelphia. An Indian war in the West was firmly and vigorously prosecuted to a successful termination, and the neutrality of the Republic with regard to the various parties of the great Revolution in France, faithfully maintained.

Washington and Adams were reëlected in 1792. The principal events of the second term were the firmness with which the President met the efforts of the French Republic to embroil the United States in another war with England; the demand for the recall of M. Genet, the French Minister, which was at length complied with; the British Treaty of 1794 (commonly known as Jay's Treaty), which was so warmly discussed by the Federalist and Republican parties in this country; the outrageous decrees by which the French Government sought to cripple American commerce in revenge for the supposed

partiality of our Government for England; the admission into the Union of the States of Vermont (1791), Kentucky (1792), and Tennessee (1796); and the Whiskey Insurrection, in 1794, which was a formidable outbreak in Western Pennsylvania against an odious excise law. Washington promptly suppressed it.

Washington was urgently importuned to be a candidate for another term, but declined, although it was sure that there would be no opposition to him. In September, 1796, he issued a "Farewell Address" to his countrymen, warning them of the evils to which their new system was exposed, and urging them to adhere firmly to the principles of the Constitution as their only hope of liberty and happiness.

The third Presidential election occurred in 1796, and was marked by a display of bitterness between the opposing parties never surpassed in the subsequent history of the Republic. The Federalists presented John Adams as their candidate, while the Republicans advocated the claims of Thomas Jefferson. Adams received the highest number of votes, and Jefferson the next. By the terms of the Constitution as it then existed, Jefferson was declared the Vice-President. President Adams was opposed with considerable bitterness by his political enemies throughout his whole term. The administration of the Navy was removed from the War Department in 1798, and a Navy Department established. On the 15th of May, 1797, the President convened Congress in extra session to consider the relations of this country with France. The French Directory had been pursuing for some years a systematic course of outrage towards the ships and citizens of the United States, and had carried this to such an extent as to leave little doubt that it was their deliberate intention to destroy American commerce. Three envoys were sent to France by President Adams, with authority to adjust all differences between the two countries. The Directory refused to receive them, but they were given to understand that the payment of a large sum of money by their Government would greatly tend towards securing proper treatment for our vessels; and it was plainly intimated that if the American Government refused to pay this bribe, it would have to go to war for its obstinacy. When this message was delivered to the Commissioners, one of their number, Charles C. Pinckney, returned this memorable and patriotic reply, in which his associates heartily joined: "War be it then; millions for defence, but not a cent for tribute." The French Government then informed Mr. Gerry, who was a Republican, that he could remain in France, but ordered Messrs. Pinckney and Marshall to quit the country.

Great indignation prevailed throughout the Union, when these insults to the American Commissioners became known. The Government at once took measures to raise an army and navy adequate to the struggle which seemed imminent. Washington was appointed Commander-in-Chief, with the rank of Lieutenant-General, and hostilities actually began at sea, where the cruisers of the Republic won several brilliant successes over French ships of war.

The energy and determination thus manifested by the United States had a happy effect in France, and the war was finally averted by the accession of Napoleon to the dignity of First Consul. The new ruler of France intimated his willingness to reopen the negotiations with America, and a treaty of peace and amity between the two countries was definitely concluded, on the 30th of September, 1800.

During the existence of hostilities with France, two laws were enacted by Congress, which are generally known as the "Alien and Sedition Laws." They empowered the President to send out of the country such aliens as should be found conspiring against the peace and safety of the Republic, and to restrict the liberty of speech and of the press. It was true beyond all doubt, as the Government claimed in defence of its course, that the country was overrun with English and French agents, who were here for the express purpose of embroiling the United States in the quarrels in progress in the Old World, and that the press, which was controlled mainly by European adventurers, had become so corrupt and licentious as to be highly dangerous to the peace of the country. Nevertheless, these Acts aroused such a strong opposition throughout the States, that the Federalists were overwhelmingly defeated in the next Presidential election. During President Adams' term, the seat of Government was removed to Washington City.

In the fourth contest for the Presidency, the votes of the Republican party were equally divided between Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr. Each received 73 electoral votes. This threw the election into the House of Representatives, where Jefferson was chosen President and Burr Vice-President. This circumstance also occasioned an amendment to the Constitution (adopted finally in 1804), requiring the electors to vote separately, as at present, for President and Vice-President. Mr. Jefferson entered upon his office in March, 1801, and soon after began to remove the Federalist office-holders under the Government, appointed by his predecessor, and to fill their places with Republicans, or Democrats as they now began to call themselves. He justified his

course by declaring that Mr. Adams had appointed none but Federalists to office, and that it was not fair for one party to have all the offices, or even a majority of them. This was the beginning of the system of removals from office for political causes, which has been the bane of our Government; but it should be added, in justice to Mr. Jefferson, that he was not guilty of such wholesale political decapitation as has usually been practised by his successors. His removals were few in proportion to the whole number of officials. His first term was marked by wisdom and vigor. The domestic affairs of the nation prospered, and the finances were managed in a masterly manner by Albert Gallatin, the great Secretary of the Treasury. Louisiana was purchased from France, and the insolence and piracies of the Barbary States of Africa punished and stopped.

In 1804, Mr. Jefferson was reëlected, receiving all but 14 of the electoral votes. Burr was succeeded in the Vice-Presidency by George Clinton, and two years later was arrested and tried for a supposed attempt to separate the Western States from the Union. He was acquitted of the charge, and his innocence is now generally admitted. American commerce was much injured by the retaliatory decrees and orders in Council of the French and British Governments, under the sanction of which American ships were seized with impunity in gross violation of the laws of nations. Great Britain was not content with these outrages, but asserted a right to impress American seamen into her navy, and to stop and search American vessels for deserters from her ships of war. These searches were generally conducted in the most aggravating manner, and hundreds of American sailors, owing no allegiance to King George, were forced into the British service. In June, 1807, the American frigate Chesapeake, on her way to the Mediterranean, was stopped off the Chesapeake Bay, by the British frigate Leopard, whose commander produced an order requiring him to search the ship for deserters. The American vessel refused to submit to the search, and was fired into by the Leopard, and, being in a helpless condition, was forced to yield with a loss of twenty-one of her crew. Four men were taken from her and sent on board the Leopard. Three of these afterwards proved to be native-born Americans. This outrage aroused a feeling of the most intense indignation in America, and the Federal Government at once demanded reparation at the hands of Great Britain, which was evaded for the time, but finally made in 1811.

On the 11th of November, 1807, England issued an order in

Council, forbidding neutral vessels to enter the ports of France until they had first touched at a British port and paid a duty; and the next month Napoleon replied to this, by issuing a decree from Milan, ordering the confiscation of every vessel which should submit to search by or pay any duties to the British authorities. These two piratical decrees, each of which was enforced by a powerful navy, meant simply the destruction of all neutral commerce, and that of America in particular. Mr. Jefferson recommended to Congress, in December, to lay an embargo, detaining all vessels, American or foreign, in the ports of the United States, and to order the immediate return home of all American vessels. This measure, which was a most singular expedient, was adopted, and gave rise to such intense dissatisfaction in all parts of the country, that it was repealed in February, 1809.

As Mr. Jefferson declined to be a candidate for a third term, the Democratic party supported James Madison, of Virginia, for the Presidency, and George Clinton, of New York, for the Vice-Presidency, and elected them in 1808. They were inaugurated in March, 1809. The measures of Mr. Jefferson's second term, and especially the embargo, had given rise to considerable opposition to the Democracy, and this opposition was now directed against the new administration with no little bitterness, and followed it persistently until its withdrawal from power.

Great Britain, instead of discontinuing her outrages upon American seamen and commerce, increased them every day, persistently refusing to be influenced by the protests and representations of the United States; and our Government, having at length exhausted all peaceable means of redress, was compelled to defend its rights with arms. War was declared against England on the 3d of June, 1812, and measures looking to the conquest of Canada were at once set on foot. The nation was poorly prepared for war. The embargo had almost entirely destroyed the revenue of the Government, and the finances were in a state of sad confusion; the navy consisted of only eight frigates and seven other vessels; and the army was a mere handful of inefficient recruits. Still, America possessed this advantage. Great Britain was forced to make such tremendous exertions to carry on her war with France, that she did not have much strength left to expend upon this country. This is shown by the fact that England made no effort to blockade our coast until the 20th of March, 1813, when, having sent a strong fleet to our waters, she proclaimed the blockade of the entire American coast, except the shores of New England.

Congress authorized the President to increase the regular army by 25,000 men, and to call for 50,000 volunteers. The calls were responded to promptly in some of the States, tardily in some, and almost ignored in others, for the country was far from being united in support of the war.

Hostilities began in the Northwest. Previous to the war, the Indians of that region, instigated by British emissaries, commenced to make war upon the American settlements, under the leadership of the famous Shawnee Chief Tecumseh. General Harrison (afterwards President), the Governor of the Territory of Indiana, as soon as he learned of this, organized a considerable force of Western militia, and marched against the savages, whom he defeated with terrible loss, in a sanguinary battle at Tippecanoe, on the banks of the Wabash River, on the 7th of November, 1811. Though defeated in this battle, Tecumseh was not conquered. He passed the next six months in reorganizing his forces, and with the beginning of the summer of 1812, renewed hostilities. General Hull, then Governor of Michigan, was sent to meet him with a force of 2000 men. He had just begun his march when war was declared against England, and he was ordered to discontinue his expedition against the Indians, and invade Canada. His force was utterly inadequate to such an undertaking, but the War Department was too stupid to perceive this. He entered Canada from Detroit, was met by a superior force of British and Indians, under General Brock, and was driven back to Detroit with a loss of 1200 men. This reduced his army to 800 men, with which he could do absolutely nothing. On the 16th of August, he surrendered Detroit to the enemy, who had followed him from Canada. This placed the whole of Michigan in the hands of General Brock. An invasion of Canada from the Niagara frontier was also undertaken by our forces during the fall of 1812. It was a most disastrous failure.

These defeats on land, however, were partly atoned for by our successes at sea. The navy had been utterly neglected by the Government at the outset of the war, and had been left to win by good service whatever encouragement it afterwards received. It achieved during the latter part of 1812 a series of brilliant victories, which placed it in the proud position it has since held. On the 19th of August, the frigate *Constitution*, Captain Hull, captured the British frigate *Guerriere*; on the 18th of October, the sloop of war *Wasp*, Captain Jones, captured the British brig *Frolic*; on the 25th of October, the frigate *United States*, Captain Decatur, captured the British frigate

Macedonian ; and on the 29th of December, the Constitution, Captain Bainbridge, captured the British frigate Java. Privateers were sent to sea in great numbers, and, by the close of the year 1812, had captured over 300 English merchant vessels.

The Government renewed its efforts against Canada with the opening of the campaign of 1813. An army, under General Harrison, was collected near the head of Lake Erie, and styled the Army of the West ; an Army of the Centre, under General Dearborn, was stationed along the Niagara frontier ; and an Army of the North, under General Wade Hampton, was posted in northern New York, on the border of Lake Champlain. There were numerous engagements between these forces and the enemy, but nothing definite was accomplished during the first half year. In April, General Pike, with a force of 1700 Americans, captured York (now Toronto), the capital of Upper Canada, but was himself killed by the explosion of a mine fired by the enemy. The town was not held, however, and the success of the attack was fully balanced by the terrible disaster which had befallen the Western Army, in January, at River Raisin, in which a detachment of 800 men, under General Winchester, had been defeated and the greater portion of them massacred by the Indians, who were now the open allies of the English. In May, the British made an attack on Sackett's Harbor, on Lake Ontario, but were repulsed. In the same month, an American force, under General Boyd and Colonel Miller, captured Fort George, in Canada, inflicting upon the British a loss of nearly 1000 men. Nothing definite was accomplished on the Niagara frontier, owing to the quarrels between Generals Wilkinson and Hampton, and the grand invasion of Canada, from which so much had been expected, never took place. The great events of the year, however, were the destruction of the British fleet on Lake Erie, by the squadron of Captain Oliver H. Perry, on the 10th of September, which caused the enemy to abandon the lake and with it the shores of Michigan and Ohio ; and the battle of the Thames, in Canada, in which the Western Army, under General Harrison, on the 6th of October, utterly defeated a strong British column, under General Proctor, and a force of 2000 Indians, under Tecumseh, inflicting upon them a severe loss in killed and wounded—Tecumseh himself being among the former—and taking 600 prisoners, 6 pieces of cannon, and large quantities of stores.

At sea, this year, the American brig Hornet, Captain Lawrence, captured the Peacock. On the 24th of February, Captain Lawrence



SCENE OF THE BATTLE OF LAKE CHAMPLAIN.

was put in command of the frigate *Chesapeake*, which was captured by the British frigate *Shannon*, off Boston, on the 1st of June. Lawrence was mortally wounded in this engagement. On the 5th of September, the American brig *Enterprise*, Lieutenant Burrows, captured the British brig *Boxer*, Lieutenant Blythe. Both commanders were killed in the fight.

The campaign of 1814 was more important. The war in Europe having closed, large numbers of Wellington's veteran troops were sent over to America. They reached this country during the latter part of the year. On the 5th of July, the American army, under General Brown, defeated the British at Chippewa. On the 25th of the same month, General Brown won a second victory over the enemy

at Lundy's Lane, or Bridgewater. General Winfield Scott held an important command in each of these engagements, and was wounded in the latter. Towards the close of the summer, Sir George Prevost, having been strongly reënforced from Wellington's army, invaded the United States from Canada, at the head of 14,000 men. He was accompanied by a powerful fleet, which moved up Lake Champlain. He was met at Plattsburg, New York, on the 3d of September, by the little army of General Macomb and a small fleet under Commodore Macdonough. Macdonough inflicted a terrible defeat on the British squadron, utterly routing it with heavy loss, and General Macomb at the same time repulsed every effort on the part of the land forces of Sir George Prevost, who, dismayed at his disasters, retreated hastily into Canada, with a loss of 2500 men and the greater part of his fleet.

In August, a British army, under General Ross, landed on the shore of the Patuxent River, in Maryland, and advanced upon the city of Washington, defeating the small American force which sought to bar its way at Bladensburg. General Ross succeeded in occupying Washington, from which, after burning the public buildings, he retired to his fleet, which had ascended the Potomac to Alexandria, to meet him. He then passed up to Baltimore, landing at North Point, near that city, while his fleet made a sharp attack upon Fort Mchenry, which commanded the approach by water to the city. The fleet was repulsed by the fort, and Ross was killed in a skirmish near North Point. His successor at once reëmbarked the army, and abandoned the effort against Baltimore. At sea, the American frigates *Essex* and *President* were taken by superior forces of the enemy, while the British sloops of war, *Epervier*, *Avon*, *Reindeer*, *Cyane*, *Levant*, and *Penguin* were captured by the American cruisers.

During the remainder of the year, nothing of importance occurred on land, but in January, 1815, a British force of 12,000 of Wellington's veteran troops made an attack upon the city of New Orleans, but were defeated with the loss of their commander and 2000 men, by 5000 American troops under General Jackson. This battle was fought after a treaty of peace had been signed in Europe between the United States and Great Britain, but before the news had reached America. The victory was most important to the Americans, for had the result been different, there can be little doubt that England would have disregarded the treaty and have clung to a conquest which would have given her the control of the mouth of the Mississippi. In this



THE PLAIN OF CHALMETTE: SCENE OF THE BATTLE
OF NEW ORLEANS.

case, either the war would have been prolonged upon a more formidable scale, or the destiny of the great West would have been marred forever.

The restoration of peace in Europe upon the downfall of Napoleon removed many of the vexatious issues which had produced the war in this country, and disposed the British Government to be just in its dealings with America. Negotiations were begun in 1814, and a treaty of peace was finally signed at Ghent, on the 24th of December, 1814. By the terms of this treaty, the two Governments agreed to settle the vexed question of a boundary between the United States and Canada, and to mutually return all territory taken during the

war; and arranged some minor details relating to their future intercourse, but nothing was said of the question of the impressment of American seamen, the chief cause of the war. Inasmuch, however, as Great Britain has never since then attempted such outrages, this question also may be regarded as settled by the war. During the war, the Barbary States resumed their old acts of piracy upon American vessels, notwithstanding the pledges which they had given, and upon the return of peace with England, a strong naval force under Commodores Bainbridge and Decatur was sent to the Mediterranean. This expedition forced the Barbary Powers to make indemnity for their piracies, and to pledge themselves to cease to molest American vessels in the future.

The Federalist party had always opposed the war with England, and during its continuance gave it no assistance beyond the aid which the laws of the land extorted from them. The strength of this party lay in the New England States, where the losses occasioned by the war fell heaviest. The Federalists denounced the war as unnecessary and unjust, and waged in reality for the benefit of France rather than of America, and complained that while they lost heavily by it, the Government did nothing for the protection of the Eastern States. To remedy the evils of which they complained, their leaders met in Convention at Hartford, Conn., near the close of the war. The Convention recommended certain measures to the Legislatures of the Eastern States limiting the power of the General Government over the militia of the States, and urged the adoption of several amendments to the Constitution. The news of the treaty of peace put a stop to all further proceedings of this body. The Convention resulted in nothing but the ultimate destruction of the Federalist party, which came to be regarded by the people at large as having been untrue to the Republic in its hour of need.

Mr. Madison was reëlected President, and Elbridge Gerry chosen Vice-President, in 1812. Thus the former had the satisfaction of conducting the war, which had been begun during his administration, to a successful close. He declined to be a candidate for a third term, and James Monroe, of Virginia, was nominated by the Democratic party, and elected in 1816, with Daniel D. Tompkins, of New York, as Vice-President. Mr. Monroe had been Secretary of State during the greater part of Mr. Madison's administration.

The return of peace found the country burdened with a debt of \$80,000,000, and with almost a total absence of specie in its mercan-

tile transactions, the majority of the banks having suspended payments of gold and silver. In 1817, Congress established a National Bank at Philadelphia, with a charter for twenty years and a capital of \$35,000,000. The notes of this institution supplied to a great extent the demand for a circulating medium of uniform value throughout the country, and did much to relieve the financial distress of the period.

Two States were added to the Union during Mr. Madison's administration, Louisiana (in 1812) and Indiana (in 1816).

Mr. Monroe had been exceedingly popular as Secretary of State, and the good will of the people followed him into the Presidential chair. His administration proved so acceptable to all parties that he was reelected in 1820 by every electoral vote but one. Five new States were admitted into the Union during his continuance in office, viz: Mississippi (1817), Illinois (1818), Alabama (1819), Maine (1820), and Missouri (1821).

For some years the opposition to African slavery in America had been spreading through the Northern States, and had been steadily gathering strength. When the territory of Missouri presented its petition to Congress for admission as a State with a Constitution sanctioning slavery within its limits, there was a very general determination expressed on the part of the Free-labor States to oppose the admission of another Slaveholding State. The Southern members of the Confederacy, on the other hand, insisted upon the right of Missouri to choose its own institutions, and threatened to withdraw from the Union if this right was denied her by excluding her from the Union. A bitter contest with regard to the subject of slavery now developed itself between the two sections of the Republic, which ceased only with the late Rebellion. The country was agitated in every portion, and the best men of the land expressed grave fears that the Union would be torn to pieces by the violence of the contending parties. After much wrangling, however, Henry Clay succeeded in procuring the passage of a series of measures known as the "Missouri Compromise." By this arrangement, Missouri was admitted into the Union with her slaveholding Constitution, and slavery was forever prohibited in that portion of the Territory of the Republic lying north of 36° 30' N. latitude. This Compromise was regarded as a final settlement of the slavery question, and had the effect of securing about thirty years of quiet and repose for the country.

During Mr. Monroe's Presidency, the Spanish Republics of South America declared their independence of Spain, and successfully main-

tained it for several years. In 1822, they were recognized by the United States. In his annual message for the year 1823, Mr. Monroe gave utterance to the following principle, which has since been distinctly recognized by successive administrations as the unwavering policy of the United States: "That as a principle the American continents, by the free and independent position which they have assumed and maintained, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power." This declaration is commonly known as the "Monroe Doctrine."

Mr. Monroe declined to be a candidate for reelection in the political campaign of 1824. A number of candidates were presented to the people, but the popular vote merely threw the election into the House of Representatives, when John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, was chosen President. John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, had already been chosen Vice-President by the people. The principal event of this administration was the adoption for the first time of a high tariff for the purpose of protecting American manufactures from the competition of foreign importations. This act was sustained by the Northern people, who were engaged in manufactures, and for whose benefit it was adopted, but was bitterly denounced by the South, which, being an agricultural country, naturally desired the liberty of buying her goods where they could be procured best and cheapest. The division of sentiment thus produced grew more distinct every day, and brought about considerable trouble in the end. There can be no doubt that it was one of the principal causes of the late civil war.

In 1828, Andrew Jackson, of Tennessee, was elected President over Mr. Adams, and John C. Calhoun chosen Vice-President a second time. The President, at the outset of his term, increased the number of his Constitutional advisers by inviting the Postmaster-General to a seat in his Cabinet. The right of the Postmaster-General to such a place had never been conceded before, but has always been acknowledged since 1829.

The new President began his career by advising Congress, in his annual message, not to extend the operations of the National Bank, whose directors sought a renewal of its charter. He declared that the existence of such an institution was not authorized by the Constitution. This inaugurated a long and bitter contest between the administration and the friends of the bank, which was sustained by almost the entire mercantile community. In 1832, Congress passed

a bill renewing the charter of the bank, which was vetoed by the President. An effort was made to pass the bill over the veto, but failed for want of the constitutional number of votes. The charter of the bank, therefore, expired by law in 1836.

The tariff question assumed formidable proportions, during this administration. In 1832, Congress increased the rate of duties. South Carolina immediately declared her intention to resist the efforts of the General Government to collect duties in the port of Charleston, and prepared to maintain her position by force of arms. The great leader of this opposition to the Government was John C. Calhoun, who had a short time previous resigned the office of Vice-President, to become a United States Senator from South Carolina. His principal coadjutors were Robert G. Hayne, Senator from South Carolina, and George McDuffie, the Governor of the State. The party of which these brilliant men were the leaders, boldly declared that a State might at pleasure nullify any law of Congress which it believed to be unconstitutional. The danger to the country was very great, and it seemed that open war would prevail between the General Government and South Carolina; for President Jackson, who had been reëlected in 1832, with Martin Van Buren of New York as Vice-President, declared his determination to enforce the law. He sent a ship of war to Charleston, ordered General Scott to proceed to that place with all the available troops under his command, issued a proclamation denying the right of a State to nullify the laws of the Federal Government, and warning all persons engaged in sustaining the State of South Carolina in its unlawful course that the extreme penalty of the law against treason would be inflicted upon them. He also caused the leaders of the rebellion to be privately informed of his intention to seize and hang them as soon as they should commit the first overt act against the United States. The President's firmness averted the troubles for the time. He was sustained by the great mass of the people throughout the country, and the vexed question was finally settled by the introduction of measures into Congress for the gradual reduction of the obnoxious duties. This compromise was proposed by Henry Clay, and accepted by the nullifiers, who were now convinced that "Old Hickory" was sincere in his threat to enforce the law.

The bank question came up again, just as the nullification excitement died out. The public funds were required by law to be deposited in the Bank of the United States, the charter of which was

about to expire by limitation. The President, in December, 1832, recommended the removal by Congress of these funds, but that body refused to take this step. The President then ordered the Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. McLane, to remove the funds and deposit them in specified State banks. Mr. McLane refused to do so, and was transferred to the State Department, which was then vacant. William J. Duane was then appointed to the Treasury, but he, too, refused to remove the funds, and was deprived of his office and succeeded by Roger B. Taney, who promptly transferred the funds from the Bank of the United States to the State banks designated by the President. This step left no doubt on the part of the people of the intention of the President to destroy the National Bank, and produced a severe panic in business circles. The President lost many friends, and was severely denounced throughout the country. In the Senate, Clay, Calhoun and Webster, the leaders of the opposition, assailed him bitterly, and the Senate passed a resolution censuring his course, by a vote of 26 ayes to 20 noes. He was sustained by the House of Representatives, whose endorsement, considering the origin of that body, was more important than the censure of the Senate. In March, 1837, the Senate expunged its resolution of censure from its journal.

During President Jackson's administration, the national debt was paid, and the States of Arkansas (in 1836) and Michigan (1837) were admitted into the Union. France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal were forced to make good their depredations upon American commerce; important commercial treaties were negotiated with foreign countries; and the war against the Seminole Indians in Florida was begun and prosecuted with vigor. This war lasted until 1842, and cost the country \$40,000,000.

In 1836, Martin Van Buren, of New York, the candidate of the Democratic party, was elected President. The contest for the Vice-Presidency was thrown into the Senate, and resulted in the choice of Richard M. Johnson. Mr. Van Buren began his administration at the outset of the great commercial crisis of 1837, and was seriously hampered during the whole of his term, by the troubles arising from that disaster. The principal measures of his administration were designed to remedy the financial evils from which the country was suffering. The most important was the establishment of the Sub-Treasury of the United States, which is still in operation.

In 1840, William Henry Harrison of Indiana, and John Tyler of Virginia, the candidates of the Whig party, were elected President

and Vice-President. General Harrison did not long survive his inauguration. He died on the 4th of April, 1841, and was succeeded by John Tyler, the Vice-President. The Whigs were in favor of a National Bank, and Congress passed several Acts chartering such an institution, all of which were vetoed by the President, whose views on the subject accorded with the principles of the Democratic party. In consequence of these Acts, he was abandoned by the party which had elected him, and was supported by the Democracy, with which he thenceforth identified himself. During Mr. Tyler's term, the question of the northwestern boundary between the United States and British America was settled by a treaty, which was ratified by the Senate on the 20th of August, 1842. A more real service was rendered, however, by the measures resulting in the annexation of the Republic of Texas to the United States, which were carried to a successful issue in spite of a determined opposition by the Whig party. The admission of Texas as a State of the Union, occurred on the 1st of March, 1845. It was a most important step, as it not only increased the territory of the Republic, but forever prevented Great Britain from acquiring a foothold on the Gulf Coast of America. Mr. Tyler's last official act was to approve the admission of the States of Florida and Iowa into the Union, on the 3d of March, 1845.

In 1844, James K. Polk, of Tennessee, was elected President, with George M. Dallas, of Pennsylvania, as Vice-President. This was a Democratic triumph. When Mr. Polk came into office, the country was involved in a dispute with the Republic of Mexico respecting the boundary between the State of Texas and Mexico. This dispute resulted in hostilities between the two countries, which began on the Rio Grande, between the armies of Generals Taylor and Arista, in April, 1846. General Taylor defeated the Mexican army on the Rio Grande, at Palo Alto, May 8th, 1846, and at Resaca de la Palma, the next day. On being reënforced, he drove the Mexicans into the interior, capturing their strong city of Monterey, and defeating their best army, under their President himself, at Buena Vista (Feb. 22, 1847).

Taylor's operations were now brought to a close in consequence of troops being taken from him to reënforce General Scott, who was collecting his forces for an expedition against the city of Vera Cruz. Scott landed before that city on the 9th of March, 1847, and captured it, after a vigorous siege, on the 29th. Moving into the interior, he defeated the enemy in a series of hard fought battles at Cherubusco, Cerro Gordo, Chapultepec, and Molino del Rey, and captured the

city of Mexico, which he entered in triumph on the 14th of September, 1847, and held until the close of the war.

In 1846, General Stephen Kearney conquered New Mexico, while Commodore Stockton and Colonel Fremont drove the enemy out of and occupied California. Kearney marched from New Mexico into California in January, 1847, and on the 8th of February assumed the office of Governor of the territory, and proclaimed its annexation to the United States. About the same time Colonel Doniphan, with 1000 Missouri volunteers, made a forced march across the Plains, and on the 28th of February defeated a force of 4000 Mexicans and captured the city of Chihuahua.

A treaty of peace between the United States and Mexico was signed at Guadalupe Hidalgo, on the 2d of February, 1848. Mexico yielded the boundary of the Rio Grande, and ceded California and New Mexico to the United States, and the latter Power agreed to pay Mexico the sum of \$15,000,000, and to assume the debts due by Mexico to American citizens, to the amount of \$3,750,000.

Great Britain had claimed the territory of Oregon as a part of British America, and our Government had insisted upon it as a part of the common property of the Republic, and had even declared its intention to go to war with England rather than be satisfied with anything less than the whole of Oregon. Nevertheless, as a measure of peace, the administration of Mr. Polk proposed to England the 49th parallel of North latitude for a boundary, our original claim having extended to the line of $54^{\circ} 40'$. As this compromise gave to Great Britain all of Vancouver's Island and the present colony of British Columbia, it was accepted. Recent events have proved that the territory was worth fighting for, and that our Government parted with it too readily. Free trade ideas prevailed during this administration to an extent sufficient to secure a modification of the high protective tariff of 1846. In May, 1848, Wisconsin was admitted into the Union.

In 1848, Zachary Taylor, of Louisiana, was elected President, and Millard Fillmore, of New York, Vice-President, by the Whigs. In this campaign, the anti-slavery party presented Martin Van Buren as their candidate for the Presidency. This organization had grown by degrees into considerable prominence upon the principle of opposition to the extension of slavery, and its strength in 1848 is shown by the fact, that although Van Buren secured no electoral vote, he received a popular vote of 291,263.

The slavery question now presented itself again, this time in a most aggravated form, for both the friends and enemies of that system of labor had become more powerful since the temporary settlement of 1820. A strong anti-slavery party had developed itself at the North, which was avowedly determined to oppose the further extension of slavery, and which was believed in the South to be working for the overthrow of that institution in the States in which it already existed. The contest was resumed in Congress, in 1846, while measures were on foot looking to peace with Mexico, by a proposition from a Northern member that in the territory which should be acquired by the war then going on, there should be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except for crime. This measure, known as the "Wilmot Proviso," passed the House of Representatives by a large majority, but the Senate adjourned before a vote could be had upon it. The next year the House readopted the "Proviso," which was rejected by the Senate. The House then abandoned it. The measure was bitterly assailed by the South, which claimed that inasmuch as it had furnished the larger number of the troops by which the war was fought and the territory won, its institutions should receive the same encouragement and protection in the new Territory as those of the North. The dispute became very bitter, and made the Presidential election of 1848 one of the most memorable in our history. Fresh excitement was added to the quarrel by the events in California.

Gold was discovered in that Territory in February, 1848, and it at once attracted a large emigration from the Eastern States and all parts of the world. In a few months the population of the Territory was over 100,000. Early in 1849, it was found that an organized government was an absolute necessity, and that there were inhabitants enough to entitle the Territory to admission into the Union as a State; and in September, 1849, a Convention was held at Monterey, which adopted and submitted to Congress a Constitution prohibiting slavery. The Southern States took strong ground against the erection of California into a free State, and even went so far as to threaten to withdraw from the Union if slavery were interfered with any further by the Government. They held a Convention at Nashville, Tennessee, in 1850, and pledged themselves to a united course of action. The tone assumed by them was belligerent and threatening in the extreme. They demanded in Congress not only the rejection of the free Constitution of California, but an amendment of the Constitution of the United States which should equalize the power of the Free and

Slave States in the General Government. New Mexico now asked admission into the Union, and Texas set up a claim to a western boundary which included a large part of New Mexico. These minor questions very greatly complicated the main issue. The excitement throughout the country was even greater than that of 1820, and for a while it seemed that the Union would surely be destroyed. Finally a compromise, known as the "Compromise of 1850," was proposed in the Senate by Henry Clay, and carried through Congress by great exertions on the part of the moderate men of both sections. This Compromise admitted California as a free State; erected Utah and New Mexico into Territories, leaving the question of the exclusion of slavery to the people thereof when they came to form State Constitutions; arranged the western boundary of Texas; abolished the slave trade in the District of Columbia; and substituted a new law for the rendition of fugitive slaves, in place of the old Act, which was ineffective. This Compromise was bitterly opposed by the extreme men of both the North and the South. The former denounced the concessions to Texas in the boundary question, and fiercely assailed the refusal to forbid slavery in the Territories; and the fugitive slave law was not only denounced as unchristian and unconstitutional, but was opposed on the part of the Free States by a series of prohibitory acts which the candid student of history is compelled to regard as as unlawful as the disunion measures of the pro-slavery party. The South, on the other hand, was furious over the admission of California as a free State, and the refusal of Congress to sanction and protect slavery in the Territories. Still, as it was plain that these measures embodied the only settlement possible at the time, the great body of the nation accepted them in good faith, and the Government honestly executed the fugitive slave law in all cases in which its aid was invoked, putting down the resistance of mobs by force.

In the midst of the struggle over the "Compromise," General Taylor died (on the 9th of July, 1850), and was succeeded by Millard Fillmore, the Vice-President, who opened his administration with a change of Cabinet ministers. He gave his hearty support to the Compromise measures, and contributed greatly towards securing their passage. The principal events of his term were, the invasion of Cuba by Lopez, in 1851, which was defeated by the Spaniards; the visit of Kossuth to the United States, in 1851; the disputes with England concerning the fisheries, in 1852, which were satisfactorily settled; and the expedition of Commodore Perry to Japan, by means

of which an important treaty was negotiated with the Japanese Government, and the ports of the empire opened to the commerce of all nations.

The slavery question entered largely into the Presidential campaign of 1852, and so greatly weakened the Whig party as to defeat it. Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, and William R. King, of Alabama, the candidates of the Democracy, were elected President and Vice-President by handsome majorities.

This administration is memorable for the violent political contests which prevailed during its term. It began by settling a dispute with Mexico, by purchasing from it the Territory of Arizona. In 1853, Jefferson Davis, the Secretary of War, inaugurated the surveys for a railway to the Pacific, by sending out an expedition of U. S. Engineers for that purpose. In December, 1853, Mr. Douglas, the Senator from Illinois, introduced a bill organizing the Territories of Kansas and Nebraska, lying west of the Missouri River, and north of the line of $36^{\circ} 30'$ N. latitude, in which region the Act of 1820 had forever prohibited slavery. This new bill repealed the Missouri Compromise Act of 1820, and reopened the slavery question in that region. The administration and the leaders of the Democratic party supported the measure, which was opposed by the great mass of the people of the free States without regard to party, and denounced by them as a violation of the plighted faith of the nation. It was hotly debated in Congress, but passed the Senate by a vote of 37 to 14, and the House by a vote of 113 to 100, and at length received the Executive approval on the 31st of May, 1854. The passage of this bill created the most intense excitement in the country. It greatly increased the strength of the anti-slavery party, which now began to be known as the Republican party, and alienated many Democrats from their party. The Act left the Territories free to decide between slavery and free labor, and thus opened the way for a long and bloody warfare within their limits; the events of which will be related in another part of this work. An effort was made by the administration to purchase Cuba from Spain; but that Power declined to sell the island. An expedition of filibusters, under General William Walker, succeeded in conquering the Central American State of Nicaragua. Walker at once sent an envoy to Washington, who was formally recognized by the President.

The anti-slavery, or Republican party now exhibited its strength by electing Mr. Banks, of Massachusetts, Speaker of the Lower House of Congress, and in the Presidential contest of 1856, nominated John

C. Fremont as its candidate, and secured for him 114 electoral votes and a popular vote of 1,341,264. A new element in this contest was the Know-Nothing, or American party, which supported Mr. Fillmore for the Presidency. It was founded upon a principle of hostility to the influence of foreigners, and especially of Roman Catholics, in our Government. Mr. Fillmore received 8 electoral votes, and 874,534 popular votes. The election resulted in the choice of the candidates of the Democratic party; James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, was elected President, and John C. Breckenridge, of Kentucky, Vice-President.

Mr. Buchanan's administration was entirely Southern in its sympathies, and was marked by a constant struggle in Congress and throughout the country over the slavery question. The struggle in Kansas went on with great bitterness until the close of his term, the power of the Government being generally cast against the free settlers of that Territory, who were forced to take extraordinary measures for their defence. An effort was made to force a pro-slavery Constitution upon the Territory, and it split the Democratic party into two wings—the larger of which, led by Stephen A. Douglas, united with the Republicans in opposing the Constitution; while the smaller, led by the extreme Southern men in Congress, received the aid of the administration, and secured the adoption of the Constitution by Congress after a severe and protracted struggle.

In 1858, Minnesota was admitted into the Union as a State, and was followed by Oregon in 1859. In 1857, the Mormon settlers of Utah Territory took up arms against the authority of the General Government. The rebellion continued for some time, and a military force was sent against the rebels; but the trouble was at length quieted without bloodshed.

In October, 1859, John Brown, with a small band of followers, seized the United States Arsenal at Harper's Ferry, and endeavored to incite the slaves of Virginia to revolt against their masters. He and his men were captured by the United States troops, a number of them being killed by the soldiers in the fight. The survivors were turned over to the authorities of the State of Virginia, by whom they were tried, convicted, and hanged. This attempt was regarded in the South as incontestable evidence of the determination of the North to destroy slavery, while at the North a formidable party denounced the execution of Brown as a murder, and by their unwise and unpatriotic course greatly strengthened the hands of the leaders of the disunion movement in the South.

The Presidential election of 1860, turned mainly upon the question of slavery in the Territories. The Democratic party, already weakened by the Kansas question, now finally split into two fragments. The larger wing nominated Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, as their candidate. They held that Congress had no power either to sanction or forbid slavery in the Territories, but that the question could be decided only by the people thereof, who were most interested in it. The smaller wing chose John C. Breckenridge, of Kentucky, as their candidate, and declared it to be the express duty of Congress to sanction and protect slavery in all the Territories of the Republic, maintaining that the Constitution of its own force carried slavery into them. The Republican party nominated Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, as its candidate. This party denied any intention to interfere with the domestic institutions of any of the States, but avowed its determination to prevent the introduction of slavery into the Territories by Congressional legislation, and denounced as false the doctrine that the Constitution established slavery in any part of the Union. It asserted the right of every community to manage its domestic affairs in its own way, and denounced the invasion of Virginia by John Brown as wicked and unjustifiable. A fourth party, known as the "Constitutional Union Party," nominated John Bell, of Tennessee, for the Presidency, and adopted the following very vague and indefinite platform of principles: "The Union, the Constitution, and the enforcement of the laws." The contest was bitter beyond all precedent.

When the election took place, the result at the polls was as follows:

Popular vote for Lincoln	1,866,452
" " " Douglas	1,375,157
" " " Breckenridge	847,953
" " " Bell	590,631

The electoral vote was divided as follows: For Lincoln, 180; for Breckenridge, 72; for Bell, 39; for Douglas, 12.

The election of Mr. Lincoln was seized upon by the extreme pro-slavery leaders as a pretext for the withdrawal of the Southern States from the Union. The Gulf States had, indeed, during the early part of the Presidential contest, declared their deliberate determination to secede, in case of the election of a Republican President. Their people honestly believed that such a result of the campaign would be fatal to their institutions, inasmuch as they expected a Republican President to destroy the institution of slavery, forgetting in their alarm

that that official could have no power to harm them. The disunion leaders took pains to deepen this vague fear. How well they succeeded is shown by the result.

As soon as the election of Mr. Lincoln was definitely ascertained, the Legislature of South Carolina summoned a Convention of the people of that State, which met on the 17th of December, 1860. This Convention adopted an ordinance of Secession, and withdrew the State from the Union, on the 20th of December. The cause of this action was declared to be as follows: "We assert that fourteen of the States have deliberately refused for years to fulfil their Constitutional obligations, and we refer to their own statutes for proof. . . . In many of these States the fugitive is discharged from the service of labor claimed, and in none of them has the State government complied with the stipulations made in the Constitution. . . . Thus the Constitutional compact has been deliberately broken and disregarded by the non-slaveholding States; and the consequence follows that South Carolina is released from her obligation." Another cause was declared to be, "the election of a man to the high office of President of the United States whose opinions and purposes are hostile to slavery." This declaration may be regarded as embodying the principal reasons assigned by the other States for their action. The secession of South Carolina was followed by that of Mississippi, January 9th, 1861, Florida, January 10th, Alabama, January 11th, Georgia, January 19th, Louisiana, January 26th, and Texas, February 1st. The forts, arsenals, and other public property of the United States in these States were seized by the State authorities, and held by their troops, except Fort Sumter, in Charleston Harbor, and Fort Pickens, near Pensacola, Florida. Fort Sumter was occupied by Major Robert Anderson with 80 men. Major Anderson had originally occupied Fort Moultrie, on Sullivan's Island, but knowing the purpose of the State authorities to seize the public property at Charleston, he evacuated his post on the night of December 25th, 1860, and threw himself with his command into Fort Sumter.

The General Government was at this time almost helpless. The army, but 16,000 strong, was posted on the remote frontier, and the available vessels of the navy were nearly all in foreign waters. Many of the most prominent officials, including several of the Cabinet Ministers, were in open sympathy with the seceded States, and the President seemed only anxious to delay any definite action in the matter until the inauguration of his successor. His recommendations to

Congress were not equal to the emergency. He was in favor of conceding everything but separate independence to the South, not seeing that the leaders of the secession movement would accept nothing but separation, and by his timidity lost the advantages which the Government would have gained by a bold and firm course. Still, he refused to yield to the pressure which was brought upon him for the purpose of securing the surrender of Fort Sumter to the State of South Carolina. He also refused to sell the fort to the State, or to order Anderson back to Fort Moultrie, as he was urged to do.

Various plans were proposed in Congress and by the States for the settlement of the national troubles, but none were attended with success. A Border State Convention met in Washington on the 4th of February, 1861, for this purpose, but adjourned, after a session of three weeks, without having accomplished anything of a definite character. The quarrel waxed hotter every day.

An attempt on the part of the Government to send reinforcements and supplies to Fort Sumter was resisted by the forces of South Carolina, and the vessel charged with that duty was fired on, and turned back. South Carolina, through her Legislature, declared that any future attempt to send aid to Fort Sumter would be regarded as an act of war, and would be resisted by force. On the other hand, the Legislatures of New York, Ohio, and Massachusetts pledged those States to assist the President with their whole military force "in putting down the rebellion."

The seceded States now formed a league for their common defence. The various State Conventions elected delegates to a Convention which met at Montgomery, Alabama, on the 4th of February, 1861. This Convention at once organized a new Republic, to which it gave the name of the *Confederate States of America*. On the 8th of February, a Provisional Constitution having been adopted, the Convention elected Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, President, and Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, Vice-President of the Confederate States. The action of the Convention was approved by all the States comprising the new Confederacy, and the Provisional Government at once entered upon its duties. Montgomery was made the seat of government.

On the 4th of March, 1861, Abraham Lincoln was inaugurated President of the United States. As it was feared that an attempt would be made to prevent the inauguration, the city of Washington was held by an armed force under the command of Lieutenant-General

Scott. The ceremonies passed off without interruption. In his inaugural address Mr. Lincoln announced his determination to collect the revenue in the ports of the seceded States, and to "hold, occupy, and possess" the forts, arsenals, and other public property seized by those States. At the time of his entrance upon the duties of his office Forts Sumter and Pickens were still held by Federal garrisons.

The Confederate Government, convinced that a struggle was inevitable, prepared with energy for it. Nearly all the officers of the army and navy of the United States, who were natives of the seceded States, resigned their commissions and entered the service of the Confederacy. The troops assembled at Charleston and Pensacola were reinforced from other States. The command at the former place was conferred upon General Pierre G. T. Beauregard, and of the latter upon General Braxton Bragg, both of whom had been distinguished officers of the old army.

In the meantime the Federal Government had determined to send an expedition to Charleston for the relief of Fort Sumter. A fleet of seven ships and 2400 men was prepared, and sailed from New York early in April. On the 8th of April, after the fleet had sailed, Governor Pickens was informed of the departure of the expedition, and of the purpose of the Government to relieve Fort Sumter at all hazards. The Governor communicated the intelligence to the Confederate authorities, who ordered General Beauregard to demand of Major Anderson the surrender of the fort. The demand was refused, and on the morning of the 12th of April the Southern batteries opened fire upon Fort Sumter, and continued it until the afternoon of the 14th, when the fort, which had been greatly injured, surrendered. The Federal fleet arrived in the offing during the bombardment, but made no effort to assist the fort. The garrison embarked on board of it after the surrender, and it returned to New York.

The attack upon Fort Sumter put an end to the last hope of peace. Both sides at once flew to arms. On the 15th of April President Lincoln called upon the States to furnish 75,000 troops for the suppression of the rebellion, and issued a proclamation convening Congress in extra session on the 4th of July. The Northern and Western States quickly responded to the call, and promptly forwarded their troops to the designated points. The Southern Government also called for troops to resist the Federal forces, and its call was responded to with alacrity.

Until now the States of Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina,

Tennessee, Kentucky, Arkansas, and Missouri, generally known as the border States, had remained in the Union in the hope of effecting a peaceful settlement of the quarrel. Each of these States was included in President Lincoln's call for troops; but their sympathies were with the South, and they refused to furnish the quotas demanded of them. All but Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri cast their lot with the South. Virginia seceded on the 17th of April; Arkansas on the 6th of May; North Carolina on the 20th of May; and Tennessee on the 8th of June. All these States subsequently ratified the Constitution of the Confederate States, and became members of the new Republic. Kentucky and Missouri attempted to remain neutral, but were ere long drawn into the struggle. Harper's Ferry and the Portsmouth Navy Yard, in Virginia, were seized by the State forces, and the other important points in the South were occupied by the Confederate forces. The western counties of Virginia refused to follow the eastern portion of the State, and declared their independence. In November, 1861, a Convention at Wheeling organized the new State of West Virginia, which was at length admitted into the Union by Congress on the 20th of June, 1863.

The call of President Lincoln for troops was answered by 300,000 volunteers. In a short time a sufficient force was assembled at Washington to insure the safety of the capital, and Alexandria and the Virginia shore were seized and fortified. Baltimore was occupied, and the communications of Washington with the North were secured. On the 19th of April the President issued a proclamation declaring all the ports of the South in a state of blockade. On the 10th of May he declared the writ of *habeas corpus* suspended in certain localities. A little later the Legislature of Maryland, which was largely Southern in its sympathies, was prevented from meeting by the arrest and imprisonment of a large number of its members by order of the Secretary of War. Congress met on the 4th of July, and measures were adopted without delay for putting in the field an army of half a million of men, and for collecting and equipping a powerful navy, and the sum of \$500,000,000 was appropriated for the prosecution of the war.

In the meantime the Confederates had collected troops in West Virginia, at Harper's Ferry, at Manassas Junction, near Washington, and on the Peninsula, between the York and the James rivers. Norfolk was also held by a strong force. On the 10th of June a column of Federal troops attacked a Confederate force at Bethel

Church, near Fortress Monroe, and was defeated. In West Virginia the Federal forces were more successful. General McClellan defeated the Confederates at Rich Mountain on the 11th of July, and drove them across the mountains with the loss of their leader, General Garnett.

The main Federal force was assembled before Washington, and was placed under the command of General McDowell. An advance upon the Confederates at Manassas Junction, under General Beauregard, having been determined upon, General Patterson was sent into the valley of Virginia to prevent General Johnston from marching from Harper's Ferry to Beauregard's assistance. On the 17th of July McDowell began his advance from the Potomac with over 50,000 men and 49 pieces of cannon. Upon learning of this movement Johnston skilfully eluded Patterson and marched to Manassas, arriving there with the bulk of his army in time to take part in the battle. On the 21st of July McDowell attacked the Confederate army, which was 31,400 strong, with, 55 guns, on the banks of Bull Run, and after a severe battle, which lasted from sunrise to nearly sunset, was driven back in utter rout upon Alexandria, with a loss of between 4000 and 5000 men and 28 cannon. The Confederates made no effort at pursuit.

As soon as it had recovered from the first shock of the disaster, the Federal Government set to work with vigor to repair its losses. General George B. McClellan was appointed to the chief command of the forces of the Union, and was ordered to take charge of the Army of the Potomac, which was assembling before Washington. He made of this force the best disciplined army in America. In Virginia the fall and winter were passed by both armies in preparing for the struggle which was to begin in the spring. On the 21st of October a Federal force under Colonel Baker was repulsed with heavy loss in an effort to drive in the Confederate left wing at Leesburg.

In order to be near the scene of operations the Confederate seat of government was removed on the 21st of May to Richmond, Virginia. That city remained the capital of the Confederacy throughout the war.

Indecisive but severe fighting marked the latter months of the year in West Virginia. The result was that the Confederates were unable to regain the footing they had lost in that section.

The efforts of Missouri to remain neutral met the unqualified oppo-

sition of the Federal authorities, and the Governor and State officials took up arms and formed a league with the Confederate States. The Federal troops under General Lyon drove the State forces from Jefferson City on the 15th of June, and defeated them in an encounter at Booneville on the 17th. The Missourians then retreated into the southwestern part of the State, and on the 5th of July repulsed the attack of a Federal column under General Sigel, at Carthage. The next day the Missourians were joined by a Confederate force under General McCulloch. The combined forces advanced into the interior of the State, and on the 10th of July were attacked by General Lyon at Wilson's Creek, near Springfield. Lyon was killed and his army defeated. On the 20th of September the State forces under General Price captured Lexington after a short siege. By the close of the year the Confederates had been driven out of Missouri into Arkansas. The State was by these decisive measures saved to the Union.

Neither party respected the neutrality of Kentucky, which State, like Missouri, furnished troops to both armies. The Federal forces were poured into Kentucky, and the Confederates seized Columbus and Bowling Green. On the 7th of November General Grant, with a small force, attacked a Confederate force at Belmont, on the Missouri shore of the Mississippi, opposite Columbus, but was repulsed.

At the outset of the war the Confederates held the principal points on the southern Atlantic coast, which they fortified as well as the means at hand would permit. In order to render the blockade effectual, the Government determined to capture these as soon as possible. The first expedition was despatched in August, 1861, from Fortress Monroe, and resulted in the capture of the Confederate works at Hatteras Inlet, which commanded the entrance to Albemarle and Pamlico Sounds. On the 7th of November a powerful fleet reduced the works at the entrance to Port Royal, South Carolina, and secured that magnificent harbor. It remained during the war the principal naval station of the Federal fleet on the southern coast. Efforts were made to render the blockade effective, but "blockade runners," built and owned principally in England, managed to elude the vigilance of the fleet, and kept up a regular communication between the South and Europe, by way of the Bahamas and West Indies, until near the close of the war.

In the fall of 1861 James M. Mason, of Virginia, and John Slidell, of Louisiana, were sent by the Confederate Government as

Commissioners to England and France. They ran the blockade and reached Havana in safety. There they embarked for England on board the British mail steamer "Trent." This vessel was stopped on the high seas by the United States steamer "San Jacinto," Captain Wilkes. Wilkes removed the Southern Commissioners to his own vessel, and suffered the "Trent" to proceed on her voyage. He then sailed to Boston, where the Commissioners were consigned to Fort Warren. The "Trent" reached England in safety, and her commander reported to his government the indignity offered to its flag. Great Britain promptly demanded of the United States the immediate and unconditional release of the Confederate Commissioners, and satisfaction for the insult to her flag. The Federal Government disavowed the action of Captain Wilkes in seizing the Commissioners, and those gentlemen were released and allowed to continue their voyage. They reached Europe in due time. Mr. Mason proceeded to London, Mr. Slidell to Paris; but neither was received in an official capacity by the English or French Governments, nor could they at any time during the struggle secure the countenance of those governments for their cause.

The opening of the year 1862 found both parties better prepared for the conflict. The war had by this time assumed colossal proportions. The military operations extended almost across the continent and engaged a number of powerful armies and a formidable navy. The opening of the year found the United States with an effective army of over half a million of men, splendidly equipped, and supplied with everything necessary for the prosecution of the war. Specie had disappeared from circulation on both sides of the Potomac, and both the General Government and that of the Confederacy had resorted to paper money as a means of supplying the lack of currency. In the North a heavy government loan was readily negotiated with the capitalists of the Eastern States, and furnished the Federal Government with the funds needed for the prosecution of the war.

In the South volunteering had ceased, and the Confederate Government, after trying various expedients, was driven to the adoption of a conscription law which placed every able-bodied male white between the ages of eighteen and thirty-five years in the military service.

The military operations of the year began in the West. On the 19th of January General George H. Thomas defeated a Confederate force under General Zollicoffer, at Mill Spring, in Kentucky, and broke the right of the Confederate line of defence, the centre of which

was at Bowling Green and the left at Columbus. This success was followed by the capture of Fort Henry, on the Tennessee river, on the 6th of February, by the troops of Brigadier-General Ulysses S. Grant and the gunboat fleet under Commodore Foote. After this success the gunboats moved around to the Ohio and entered the Cumberland, while Grant's army marched across the country to Fort Donelson on the latter river, below Nashville. This strong work was invested, and was captured on the 16th of February, after three days of hard fighting. Over 5000 prisoners fell into the hands of the victors. These successes compelled the Confederate forces to evacuate Bowling Green and Columbus. General Beauregard fell back from Columbus to Corinth, an important railroad centre in northern Mississippi, and General A. S. Johnston fell back from Bowling Green through Nashville to the Tennessee river, and finally by a flank march joined Beauregard at Corinth. All Kentucky and Middle Tennessee were thus gained by the Federal troops. General Buell's army occupied Nashville, and General Grant advanced to Pittsburgh Landing, on the Tennessee, not far from Corinth. Buell was ordered to join Grant as soon as possible, when their combined forces were to attack Corinth. To prevent this junction General Sidney Johnston, the Confederate commander, after uniting his force with that under Beauregard at Corinth, advanced to the Tennessee to attack Grant before Buell could join him. He attacked the Federal army on the morning of April 6th, at Shiloh Church, near Pittsburgh Landing, and drove it to the Tennessee. Towards the close of the day he was mortally wounded, and died a little later. The command passed to General Beauregard, who failed to follow up his advantage. During the night Buell's army arrived, and thus reinforced, Grant, on the morning of the 7th, attacked the Confederates, and after a sharp fight forced them to retreat to Corinth.

On the 7th of April Island No. 10, in the Mississippi, which had been fortified by the Confederates, was captured by the gunboat fleet and a force under General Pope. The Confederates retreated to Fort Pillow, a short distance above Memphis.

General Halleek now took command of the Union army in the West, and laid siege to Corinth, which was evacuated on the 29th of May by Beauregard, who retreated to Tupelo, Mississippi. This retreat compelled the evacuation of Fort Pillow, and on the 6th of June the Federal forces occupied Memphis. All West Tennessee was now held by the Federal forces, whose line extended from Memphis, through Corinth, almost to Chattanooga.

The Confederates still held East Tennessee, and collected an army of over 50,000 men, under General Braxton Bragg, at Chattanooga and Knoxville. It was determined to use this army in a bold effort to regain West Tennessee and Kentucky. About the middle of August Bragg's army moved from East Tennessee in two divisions, the advanced forces being under General E. Kirby Smith. Smith moved rapidly into Kentucky, and on the 30th of August defeated a Union force under General Mason, at Richmond. He then occupied Lexington and Frankfort, and advanced towards Cincinnati; but learning that a powerful Union army was assembling at Cincinnati, fell back to Frankfort, where he rejoined General Bragg on the 4th of October. Bragg had moved off as soon as Kirby Smith had gotten fairly on his way, and had marched for Louisville; but Buell had fallen back from Nashville with such speed that he had managed to reach Louisville before Bragg, who therefore halted at Frankfort. Being heavily reinforced, Buell moved forward from Louisville to attack Bragg, and the latter fell back slowly before him. An indecisive encounter occurred between the two armies at Perryville, on the 8th of October, and Bragg withdrew to Nashville without any further effort on the part of Buell to check him. He took with him a train of wagons forty miles long loaded with plunder.

During this campaign West Tennessee was held by the army of General Grant, whose line extended from Memphis to Corinth. A Confederate army under Generals Price and Van Dorn endeavored to drive Grant out of Tennessee, but was defeated at Iuka on the 19th of September, and again at Corinth on the 4th of October.

Bragg continued his retreat from Nashville to Murfreesboro', 30 miles distant. General Buell was removed from the command of the Federal army, and was succeeded by General Rosecrans, who, toward the last of December, marched from Nashville to attack Bragg. At the same time, Bragg, ignorant of this movement, advanced to attack Nashville. The two armies met at Stone River on the 31st of December. A severe battle, which lasted all day, ensued, and at nightfall the Union forces were driven back at all points. During the night Rosecrans took up a stronger position, and on the 2d of January, 1863, Bragg renewed his attack and was repulsed with heavy loss. Each army lost about 10,000 or 12,000 men. Bragg retreated in good order to Tullahoma, about 30 miles from Murfreesboro'.

In December General Grant made an unsuccessful attempt to capture Vicksburg, Mississippi, which the Confederates had fortified

to enable them to retain their hold on the Mississippi river. A severe battle, lasting two days, was fought at Pea Ridge, Arkansas, on the 7th and 8th of March. In the first day's fight the Confederates, who were commanded by General Van Dorn, were successful; but were repulsed by General Curtis the next day.

The plan of the Government to reduce the prominent points on the southern coast was continued with success during the year 1862. On the 8th of February a powerful expedition, under General A. E. Burnside, captured Roanoke Island, between Albemarle and Pamlico Sounds. On the 14th of March Newbern, North Carolina, was taken by the same force, and on the 25th of April Fort Macon, at the entrance of Beaufort Harbor, surrendered. A fleet under Commodore Farragut was sent against New Orleans. On the 24th of April it forced a passage by the batteries of Forts Jackson and St. Philip, and the next day anchored in front of New Orleans, which surrendered without opposition. A day or two later a force of Federal troops under General B. F. Butler occupied the city. The capture of New Orleans was followed by the surrender of Forts Jackson and St. Philip. These successes deprived the Confederacy of the largest and wealthiest city of the South, and wrested from it the whole of the lower Mississippi. On the 11th of April Fort Pulaski, near the mouth of the Savannah river, surrendered to General Hunter after a bombardment of fifteen days. Its capture closed the port of Savannah to blockade runners.

The Federal naval forces had a narrow escape from a crushing disaster on the coast of Virginia. Upon the evacuation of the Portsmouth Navy Yard, at the opening of the war, the Federal authorities sunk several vessels in the yard, as they were unable to remove them. One of these was the steam frigate "Merrimac." She was raised by the Confederates, rebuilt by them, heavily plated with iron armor, and named the "Virginia." A long, stout bow was fitted to her to enable her to act as a ram, and she was armed with ten heavy guns. Thus prepared she was the most formidable vessel afloat. On the 8th of March she left Norfolk Harbor and ran down to Hampton Roads, where she destroyed the frigate "Congress" and the sloop-of-war "Cumberland," and spread dismay among the rest of the squadron collected there. She was herself uninjured. At sunset she withdrew into the Elizabeth river. During the night the iron-clad "Monitor" arrived from New York on her trial trip to Fortress Monroe. On the reappearance of the "Virginia" the next morning the "Monitor" engaged

her, and after a close fight of several hours forced her to draw off and return to Norfolk severely injured. This was the first engagement ever fought between iron-clads, and inaugurated a new era in naval warfare.

The military events in Virginia were of the highest importance. Fearing that McClellan would interpose his army between him and Richmond, General Johnston, the Confederate commander, fell back from Centreville, on the 8th of March, to the line of the Rapidan. McClellan thereupon transported his army, 120,000 strong, by water to Fortress Monroe, and advanced upon Richmond by the peninsula between the York and James rivers. His progress was stayed by the Confederate works extending across the peninsula from Yorktown to the James. This line was defended by a small force under General Magruder, who held it until the arrival of Johnston and his army from the Rapidan. On the night of the 3d of May Johnston fell back from this exposed line to a strong position on the north side of the Chickahominy river, immediately in front of Richmond. McClellan followed leisurely, and took position on the left or south bank of that stream.

The evacuation of the peninsula by the Confederates compelled them to abandon Norfolk also, which they did on the 9th of May. The iron-clad "Virginia" was taken into the James river and destroyed, thus leaving that river open to within a few miles of Richmond.

Upon the transfer of his army to the peninsula, General McClellan had been required to detach a heavy force to cover Washington city. Upon reaching the Chickahominy he induced President Lincoln to order this covering force to move by way of Fredericksburg and unite with the Army of the Potomac before Richmond. With his army thus augmented, the Union commander had no doubt of his ability to capture Richmond. While awaiting the arrival of this force he threw his left wing across the Chickahominy and lodged it in a position nearer Richmond. In this exposed position it was struck a tremendous blow by General Johnston, at Seven Pines, on the 31st of May, and was driven back a considerable distance. General Johnston was severely wounded, and was unable to drive the Federal left across the Chickahominy as he intended. Warned by this battle, McClellan heavily intrenched his position on both sides of the river.

Early in the year General Jackson, who had been stationed with a small Confederate force in the valley of Virginia, was ordered to manœuvre his troops in such a manner as to threaten Washington,

and prevent reinforcements from being sent to McClellan. He was entirely successful in this attempt. Fremont's army had been ordered to march from West Virginia into the valley to relieve Banks, who was to cover Washington, and allow the force in front of that city to move to McClellan's assistance. Jackson's task was to neutralize this plan. He attacked Fremont's advance, at McDowell, in West Virginia, and drove it back on the 8th of May, and then, by a forced march across the mountains, hastened to the valley, defeated Banks' advanced guard at Front Royal, on the 23d of May, and his main body at Winchester, on the 25th, drove him out of the valley, and pursued him to the Potomac. This bold movement so alarmed the Federal Government that the effort to reinforce McClellan was abandoned. A part of the force intended for him was retained for the protection of Washington, and the rest was sent under General Shields to co-operate with Fremont, who was advancing into the valley from West Virginia, in an effort to intercept Jackson. Jackson, however, retreated up the valley with remarkable speed, and when he had placed himself beyond his pursuers, wheeled upon Fremont, and dealt him a blow at Cross Keys, on the 8th of June, which checked his advance, and on the 9th defeated Shields at Port Republic, and drove him back. Then, moving leisurely to a point of safety, he rested his army for a few days, and hastened to the Chickahominy to reinforce General Lee.

Upon the fall of General Johnston at Seven Pines, the command of the Confederate army before Richmond was conferred upon General Robert E. Lee, who determined to force McClellan back from the Chickahominy. Upon the arrival of Jackson's corps his army was increased to a strength of 90,000 men. McClellan's force numbered 115,000 men. On the 25th of June Lee attacked the Federal right wing at Mechanicsville, and drove it back upon the centre at Cold Harbor. On the 27th the position at Cold Harbor was carried by the Confederates after a desperate struggle. With great difficulty McClellan secured his retreat to the south side of the Chickahominy, and destroyed the bridges in his rear. McClellan now decided to abandon his base on the York river and retreat to the James by way of White Oak Swamp. The retreat was begun on the night of the 28th. Lee attacked the retreating army at Savage Station on the afternoon of the 29th, and at Frazier's Farm on the afternoon of the 30th, but was not able on either occasion to prevent its passage through the swamp. On the 1st of July the Federal army was

massed at Malvern Hill, within a mile of the James. It was attacked there by the Confederates, who were repulsed with heavy loss. McClellan then moved to Harrison's Landing on the James, where he established his army under the protection of his fleet. His losses in the "Seven Days' Battles" amounted to 20,000 men, 52 cannon, 35,000 stand of arms, and an enormous quantity of stores. The Confederates lost 19,533 men.

The disasters to McClellan's army threw the North into the deepest despondency. President Lincoln, on the 2d of July, issued a call for 300,000 fresh troops, and on the 4th of August ordered a draft for 300,000 militia to serve nine months. Within three months this enormous mass of 600,000 fresh troops was placed in the field.

A new army was formed in northern Virginia before Washington, and was placed under Major-General John Pope. Somewhat later McClellan was ordered to abandon his position on the James, and send his troops to the Potomac to reinforce Pope. In the meantime General Lee had sent General Jackson with his corps to the Rappahannock to watch Pope. On the 9th of August Jackson defeated Pope's advanced guard, under General Banks, at Cedar Mountain. As soon as he was informed of McClellan's withdrawal from the James, Lee hastened with his whole force to the Rappahannock. He determined to attack Pope at once, before McClellan could reach him. He accordingly threw Jackson's corps in the rear of the Federal army, and seized its communications with Washington. Pope immediately fell back to the line of Bull Run, and Lee hastened with all speed to rejoin Jackson. Before his arrival Jackson's forces resisted two attacks from Pope's troops. On the 29th the junction between Lee and Jackson was effected. On the same afternoon Pope attacked them and was repulsed, and on the 30th, having risked the fate of the campaign on a decisive battle, Pope was routed in the second battle of Bull Run, and was driven within the lines of Washington. His losses during the campaign amounted to over 30,000 men. The Confederate loss was about 9000.

General Lee followed up his victory by an invasion of Maryland, which State it was generally believed was only awaiting an opportunity to unite its fortunes with the Confederacy. Scarcely a handful of Marylanders joined him. The Potomac was crossed on the 5th of September, and on the 6th the Confederate army occupied Frederick City. As Harper's Ferry was held by a garrison of 11,000 men, the reduction of that place was necessary in order to preserve Lee's

communications with his own country. General Jackson was despatched with his corps to reduce it, while Lee, with the rest of the army, took position at South Mountain to await the result. Jackson reached Harper's Ferry and promptly carried the heights overlooking the town. On the 15th the garrison surrendered to him. After securing his prisoners he set off at once to join General Lee.

In the meantime General McClellan had been restored to the command of the Army of the Potomac. This force he reorganized on the march, and at once set out to meet the Confederates, moving slowly. At Frederick he found a copy of Lee's confidential order, giving his plan of operations. This document enabled the Federal commander to act with certainty, and he marched rapidly to South Mountain, and on the 14th of September attacked General Lee, who, after a stubborn fight, fell back behind Antietam Creek, where he was joined on the morning of the 17th by the troops of General Jackson, who had made a forced march from Harper's Ferry. The Southern army was now reduced to about 40,000 men, thousands having straggled from the ranks on the march through Virginia. On the 17th McClellan attacked Lee at Antietam. The battle lasted through the day, but the Confederates held their ground. On the night of the 18th Lee fell back to the Potomac, which he recrossed without losing even a wagon, and retired to Winchester. McClellan moved to the vicinity of Harper's Ferry, and on the 2d of November crossed the Potomac east of the Blue Ridge. Lee at once passed the mountains and moved towards the Rappahannock, placing his army between McClellan and Richmond. On the 7th of November McClellan was removed from his command, and was succeeded by General A. E. Burnside, who marched to the Rappahannock, opposite Fredericksburg. Lee took position on the hills back of that town. On the 11th and 12th of December Burnside crossed the Rappahannock at Fredericksburg, and on the 13th endeavored to carry the Southern line by assault. He was driven back with fearful loss, and retreated across the Rappahannock, where his army went into winter quarters. He was soon after relieved of his command at his own request.

On the 1st of January, 1863, President Lincoln issued his Emancipation Proclamation, declaring all the negro slaves within the limits of the Confederate States free from that day.

General Joseph Hooker was appointed to succeed General Burnside in the command of the Army of the Potomac. Its losses were

made up by reinforcements, and it was thoroughly reorganized and brought to a splendid state of efficiency by its new commander. By the opening of the spring it numbered 120,000 men and 400 pieces of artillery. Learning that Lee's army had been weakened by the withdrawal of Longstreet's corps, 24,000 strong, Hooker determined to attack him. He detached a column of about 25,000 men, under General Sedgwick, to cross the Rappahannock at Fredericksburg and force the Southern lines in the rear of the town, and with the bulk of his army moved to his left, crossed the Rappahannock, and planted himself on Lee's right and in his rear. Lee perceived his danger and took prompt measures to avert it. Leaving a small force to hold his lines in the rear of Fredericksburg, he moved with his main body against Hooker, who had intrenched himself at a place called Chancellorsville. About the same time Sedgwick crossed the river and threatened the position at Fredericksburg. On the 2d of May Lee sent Jackson's corps to turn the right of Hooker's line. This movement was brilliantly executed, but cost the Confederates the life of Stonewall Jackson, who was mortally wounded. Hooker's right was driven in on his centre, and the next day Lee stormed his position at Chancellorsville and forced him to retreat to the junction of the Rappahannock and Rapidan rivers. He was about to renew his attack on Hooker at this point, when he was informed that Sedgwick had carried the heights of Fredericksburg and was marching against him. Leaving a part of his army to hold Hooker in check, Lee marched rapidly to meet Sedgwick. He encountered him at Salem Heights, on the 4th, and drove him over the Rappahannock. Then turning upon Hooker, he prepared to renew his attack; but the latter, disheartened by Sedgwick's defeat, withdrew his army across the Rappahannock on the 5th of May, and returned to his old position opposite Fredericksburg. The Confederate victory was dearly bought. Stonewall Jackson died a few days later.

The Confederate Government now rapidly reinforced Lee's army to a strength of nearly 80,000 men, and brought it to an equality with Hooker's army, which had been reduced by losses in battle, desertions, and expirations of enlistment to that strength. It was resolved to take advantage of this circumstance, and of the despondency of the North which had followed the defeat of Hooker at Chancellorsville, to renew the invasion of the North, in the hope of carrying the war out of Virginia. Accordingly Lee, on the 3d of June, left the Rappahannock, and marching rapidly through the

valley, crossed the Potomac on the 22d of June, and moved towards Hagerstown, in Maryland. On the 23d his advanced corps occupied Chambersburg, Pennsylvania. Hooker, who had followed slowly, crossed the Potomac on the 25th and 26th of June, and marched towards Frederick. Unable to agree with the War Department as to his movements, he asked to be relieved, and was succeeded by Major-General George G. Meade. General Lee now moved his army east of the mountains, and directed his advance towards Gettysburg. In ignorance of his adversary's design, General Meade hastened forward to occupy the same point. The most intense excitement was occasioned throughout the North by the invasion of Pennsylvania by the Confederates, and preparations were made to oppose an energetic resistance to it.

On the morning of the 1st of July the advanced forces of the two armies encountered each other at Gettysburg. The Federal advance was forced back and its commander, General Reynolds, killed. General Hancock, who succeeded to the command, recognized the advantages of the position at Gettysburg, and held it until Meade came up with the main army. The two armies then took position on the hills on opposite sides of Gettysburg, with the town between them. On the 3d of July General Lee endeavored to carry the Federal position by storm, but his attack was repulsed with terrible loss. The Federal victory was decisive. It put an end to the invasion. On the night of the 4th of July Lee fell back from Gettysburg and retreated to the Potomac, which he passed in safety on the 13th and 14th, without serious opposition by the Federal army. On the 18th General Meade crossed the Potomac below Harper's Ferry, and endeavored to place his army between Lee and Richmond. The latter, by rapid marches, gained the line of the Rappahannock before him, and so defeated this effort. The remainder of the year was passed by the two armies on the Rapidan.

In the West the Federal arms were crowned during the year by a series of brilliant and decisive successes.

The first of the year found the army of General Grant encamped on the Mississippi at Milliken's Bend, a short distance above Vicksburg. The Confederates had strongly fortified Vicksburg, and had collected an army of over 30,000 men, under General Pemberton, for its defence. They had also fortified Port Hudson, about 100 miles lower down the river. It was all important for them to hold these posts, as they commanded the river between them and secured free com-

munication between the States east and west of the Mississippi. After spending several months in fruitless endeavors to attack Vicksburg from the north, General Grant ran a number of gunboats and transports by the batteries at that place, and marched his army across the country to a point opposite Bruinsburg, Mississippi, and with the aid of his boats crossed the river on the 1st of May and marched towards the rear of Vicksburg. Near Port Gibson a part of Pemberton's army was encountered and defeated on the same day. This success compelled the evacuation of Grand Gulf by the Confederates. Grant now boldly threw his army between Jackson—where a small force was being collected by General Joseph E. Johnston—and Pemberton's army, near Vicksburg, intending to prevent any junction between these forces, and to drive Pemberton within the lines of Vicksburg. On the 14th of May he attacked Johnston at Jackson, the capital of Mississippi, and forced him to retreat northward towards Canton. Then turning upon Pemberton, he defeated him at Baker's Creek, on the 16th, and the next day defeated him at the Big Black River, and compelled him to retreat within the defences of Vicksburg, which were promptly invested by the Federal army. On the 19th of May, and again on the 22d, Grant attempted to carry the Southern works by assault, but was each time repulsed with heavy loss. He then laid siege to the city, and subjected it to a terrible bombardment. While the siege was carried on, Johnston's army was held back and prevented from undertaking any movement for the relief of Vicksburg. On the 4th of July Vicksburg was formally surrendered to General Grant by General Pemberton. Thirty thousand prisoners, 60,000 stand of arms, 250 cannon, and an immense quantity of stores were captured by the Union forces. It was justly regarded as the greatest victory of the war.

While the siege of Vicksburg was in progress, General Banks ascended the Mississippi from New Orleans and laid siege to Port Hudson. It was surrendered to him on the 8th of July, the fall of Vicksburg having rendered it of no value.

These victories wrested from the Confederates their last hold upon the Mississippi. They created the greatest rejoicings in the Northern and Western States, and a corresponding depression in the South. Being simultaneous with the defeat of the Southern army at Gettysburg, they were decisive of the war, which, though it lingered for nearly two years longer, had from this time one inevitable result.

In June, 1863, Rosecrans advanced from Nashville and threatened

the communications of Bragg's army, which had passed the winter at Chattanooga. Bragg evacuated that place and fell back to Dalton, Georgia, where he was reinforced by Longstreet's corps from Lee's army. Thus strengthened, he wheeled upon Rosecrans, who had followed in pursuit, and attacked him at Chickamauga on the 19th of September. The battle was resumed on the 20th, and was one of the most stubbornly contested of the war. Rosecrans was defeated and driven into Chattanooga. Bragg at once invested that place and reduced the Federal army to great suffering. General Rosecrans was now removed from the command of the Army of the Cumberland, and was succeeded by General Grant, who was given the command of all the Western armies of the Union. He marched with a strong force to the relief of Chattanooga, and arriving before that place, soon changed the aspect of affairs. On the 23d of November the besieged army, by a vigorous sortie, drove the Confederates from the important position of Orchard Knob; on the 24th General Hooker stormed Lookout Mountain and carried it; and on the 25th the Confederates were driven from their last position on Mission Ridge. Bragg retreated into Georgia. He was soon removed from his command, and was succeeded by General Joseph E. Johnston.

During the progress of this campaign, General Burnside, with about 25,000 men, moved from Kentucky into East Tennessee, and had occupied Knoxville. After the battle of Chickamauga Bragg sent Longstreet to recover East Tennessee, and that general laid siege to Knoxville. Burnside held the town, though almost starved, until Sherman's corps, sent by Grant after Bragg's defeat, arrived to his assistance and forced Longstreet to raise the siege and retreat into Virginia.

On the 7th of April, 1863, Admiral Dupont endeavored to force his way into Charleston Harbor with the iron-clad fleet, but was repulsed with severe loss by the Southern batteries. Early in July a force under General Gilmore effected a lodgment on the south end of Morris Island, and pushed their advance towards Fort Wagner with such steadiness that on the night of the 6th of September the Confederates evacuated that work just in time to avoid the final assault. The Federal batteries on Morris Island soon reduced Fort Sumter to a mass of ruins and bombarded Charleston.

Early in March, 1864, General Grant was raised to the grade of lieutenant-general, and was given the chief command of all the armies of the Union. He established his head-quarters with the Army of

the Potomac; the Western army was placed under the command of General Sherman, and was to advance simultaneously with the Virginia army.

On the 4th of May the Army of the Potomac, 140,000 strong, under General Grant's command, crossed the Rapidan, turned Lee's right, and entered the region known as the Wilderness. Lee had but 50,000 men, but attacked Grant in the Wilderness, on the 5th of May, hoping to prevent him from reaching the open country beyond. The conflict was maintained for two days, both armies suffering greatly. On the 7th Grant moved to the right of Lee, and endeavored to seize the strong position of Spottsylvania Court House. Lee divined his purpose and reached the position before him. On the 10th and 12th of May Grant made vigorous efforts to drive Lee from this position, but failed. On the 21st of May he moved from Spottsylvania to the North Anna river, hoping to get between Lee and Richmond; but upon reaching that river found his antagonist intrenched in a strong position behind it. Being unwilling to attack the Confederate army in this position, the Federal commander again moved to his left and marched to the Chickahominy. Lee followed him promptly, and took position at Cold Harbor, on the north side of the Chickahominy and within nine miles of Richmond, occupying nearly the same line as that held by McClellan in the battle of the 27th of June, 1862. He covered his line with strong earthworks. On the 3d of June the Army of the Potomac made a determined attack upon these works, and was repulsed with a loss of 13,000 men. Its losses since the passage of the Rapidan amounted to over 60,000 men. The Confederate loss during the same period was about 20,000 men. Failing to force the Southern works at Cold Harbor, Grant marched to the James river and crossed that stream at Wilcox's Landing, on the 15th and 16th of June, and advanced upon Petersburg.

At the opening of the campaign a force under General Butler moved up the neck of land between the James and Appomattox rivers, and endeavored to capture the works and railway between Richmond and Petersburg. It was defeated on the 16th of May by a force under General Beauregard, and was driven back to Bermuda Hundreds, where it was forced to remain until Grant crossed the James river.

After passing the James Grant advanced at once upon Petersburg, and on the 16th, 17th, and 18th of June made repeated efforts to carry

the defences of that place and the line between Petersburg and Richmond by storm, but without success. He thereupon laid siege to Petersburg. During the fall he gradually extended his left until he wrested from the Confederates the railway connecting Petersburg with Weldon, North Carolina. From this point he sought to extend his left still farther and seize the South Side Railway, Lee's only remaining line of communication with the Southern States, but without success. The siege was marked by a number of battles during the remainder of the year, but we have not space or time to enumerate them all. During the early fall General Grant extended his lines across the James river, and established a force on the north side of that stream to lay siege to the defences of Richmond.

Simultaneously with the advance of the Army of the Potomac a force of 10,000 men, under General Sigel, entered the valley of Virginia with the design of penetrating into Southwestern Virginia and seizing the railway connecting Lynchburg with East Tennessee and Georgia. General Breckenridge attacked Sigel at New Market, on the 15th of May, and drove him back down the valley. General Hunter succeeded Sigel and advanced to the vicinity of Lynchburg, where he was attacked by General Early and driven into West Virginia. Early then moved rapidly down the valley, crossed the Potomac near Martinsburg on the 5th of July, and on the 7th occupied Frederick City, Maryland. On the 9th he defeated a small force under General Lew Wallace, at Frederick Junction, and marched upon Washington city. He arrived before that place on the 11th, and found the defences so strongly manned that, after skirmishing before them for several days, he recrossed the Potomac on the 14th and returned to Winchester.

A force of 40,000 men was assembled on the upper Potomac by the Federal Government, and was placed under command of General Sheridan, who at once advanced against Early. On the 19th of September he defeated him at Winchester, and again, on the 22d, at Fisher's Hill, and drove him up the valley as far as Staunton. By order of General Grant, Sheridan now devastated the valley, driving off the stock and burning all the crops, mills, and farming implements. Having received reinforcements, Early moved back down the valley, and on the 19th of October surprised Sheridan's camp at Cedar Creek, and drove his army in confusion. Sheridan was at "Winchester, twenty miles away," at the opening of the battle; but as soon as he heard the firing sprang on his horse and rode with all

speed for the army. He reached it just as General Wright had rallied it. Early's men stopped to plunder the captured camp, and Sheridan moved back, routed them, and drove them up the valley for thirty miles. This success ended the valley campaign.

The Western army, 100,000 strong, under General Sherman, marched from Chattanooga on the 7th of May. General Johnston, with an army of 50,000 Confederates, held a strong position at Dalton, Georgia. Sherman, being unwilling to assail him in this position, turned it, and compelled him to fall back to Resaca. On the 14th and 15th of May he attacked the Confederate lines near Resaca, but without success, and by moving around Johnston's left flank again, compelled him to fall back to Dallas. He attacked him again between the 25th and 28th, when, Sherman having turned Allatoona Pass, Johnston occupied a new position embracing Pine, Kenesaw, and Lost Mountains. Being unable to force this position, Sherman turned it, and Johnston crossed the Chattahoochee and fell back within the defences of Atlanta, where he meant to risk a decisive battle. On the 17th of July, however, he was removed from his command, and was succeeded by General John B. Hood. On the 17th of July the Union army crossed the Chattahoochee and advanced towards Atlanta. On the 20th and 22d Hood attacked it on Peach Tree Creek, but was defeated. Sherman now thrust his army between the two wings of Hood's army, and that commander, on the 31st of August, evacuated Atlanta and retreated towards Macon. On the 2d of September Sherman occupied Atlanta. That city had been the principal depot in the South for the manufacture of military stores. Its loss was a crushing blow to the Confederates.

With the hope of drawing Sherman out of Georgia, Hood, by the orders of his Government, marched into Tennessee and threatened Nashville. General George H. Thomas was intrusted with the defence of that place, and Sherman prepared to put in execution a plan he had long cherished, but had not been able to carry out while Hood remained in Georgia. Hood began his movement on the 19th of November. On the 30th he defeated General Schofield at Franklin, eighteen miles from Nashville, and forced him to retire within the defences of the latter place. Hood then advanced to Nashville and invested the place. On the 15th and 16th of December he was attacked by General Thomas, routed, and driven across the Tennessee with the remnant of his army.

In the meantime Sherman had put in execution his plan, which

was to march from Atlanta through Georgia to the sea-coast, from which he could move northward to Virginia and aid Grant in bringing the war to a close by the destruction of Lee's army. On the 14th of November he set fire to Atlanta and began his "march to the sea" at the head of a splendid army of 60,000 men. He ravaged the country as he went, leaving behind him a broad belt of desolation 60 miles in width and 300 in length. In about four weeks he reached the coast near the mouth of the Savannah river. On the 13th of December he carried Fort McAllister by assault, and on the 22d of December occupied the city of Savannah.

On the 5th of August, 1864, Admiral Farragut forced his way, with his fleet, by Forts Morgan and Gaines into Mobile Bay, and defeated the Confederate fleet, destroying and capturing the whole of it. On the 7th of August Fort Morgan surrendered to General Granger, and on the 23d Fort Gaines also capitulated. These captures closed the harbor of Mobile to blockade runners.

A notable success was won at sea in this year. On the 19th of June the United States steamer "Kearsarge" sunk the Confederate cruiser "Alabama," in a fight off Cherbourg, France.

In the fall of 1864 Abraham Lincoln was re-elected President of the United States by a large popular vote, and received the electoral vote of every State except New Jersey, Delaware, and Kentucky.

On the 31st of October, 1864, Nevada was admitted into the Union as a State.

The year 1865 opened with an effort to restore peace. An informal interview was held in Hampton Roads, on the 3d of February, between President Lincoln and Secretary Seward and a commission appointed by the Confederate Government. It accomplished nothing, as Mr. Lincoln would listen to no terms that were not based upon the unconditional submission of the South.

On the 15th of January Fort Fisher, at the mouth of the Cape Fear river, was captured by a land force under General Terry, after a terrific bombardment by the fleet under Admiral Porter. On the 22d of February Wilmington was occupied by the Federal forces.

After the capture of Savannah Sherman allowed his troops a month's rest, and then, in spite of the horrible condition of the roads, began his march northward. On the 17th of February he reached Columbia, South Carolina, and on the same day the Confederates evacuated Charleston and its defences, which were occupied the next

day by the Union forces under General Gilmore. On the 12th of March Sherman entered Fayetteville, North Carolina.

In the emergency to which it was reduced, the Confederate Government was obliged to confer the command of the force assembling in Sherman's front upon General Joseph E. Johnston. General Johnston succeeded in collecting about 35,000 troops, with which he attacked Sherman, at Averasboro', on the 16th of March, and again, at Bentonville, on the 19th. He was unable to stay the advance of the Federal army, however, and on the 23d of March Sherman occupied Goldsboro'. Johnston withdrew towards Raleigh. At Goldsboro' Sherman was joined by the forces of Generals Schofield and Terry, which had moved up from the coast.

The armies of Grant and Lee had confronted each other at Petersburg during the winter. On the 26th of March Grant was reinforced by 10,000 magnificent cavalry under General Sheridan, who had moved down from the valley, laying waste the country along his route. Lee's situation was growing more critical every day. He had less than 40,000 men with him, and it was certain that no more could be obtained. By the last of March the Federal army numbered 170,000 men.

On the 29th of March Grant began his final advance, moving his left wing around Lee's right flank. On the 31st Lee endeavored to drive back the Federal left, but without success. On the 1st of April Sheridan captured the important position of Five Forks, taking 5000 prisoners and planting himself fairly in Lee's rear. As soon as Sheridan had seized this position, Grant opened a heavy fire upon the Confederate lines along his entire front, and maintained it throughout the night. On the 2d he made a general attack upon Lee's line and broke it at several points. General Lee thereupon took up a new position on a shorter line immediately around Petersburg, and held it against every effort to carry it. Seeing that it was impossible to hold his ground longer, Lee withdrew his army from Richmond and Petersburg, and retreated in the direction of Amelia Court House. The next morning the retreat was discovered by the Federal army, which at once occupied both Richmond and Petersburg. Leaving a small force to occupy them, Grant hastened with the rest of his army in pursuit of Lee.

It was General Lee's intention to move by way of Burkesville to Danville, and seek to form a junction with General Johnston. Upon reaching Amelia Court House, to which place he had ordered supplies

for his army to be sent, he found that his orders had been countermanded by the Confederate Government. His troops were without food, and had eaten nothing since the commencement of the retreat. Parties were sent into the surrounding country to obtain supplies, and this consumed the whole of the 4th and 5th of April, which Lee had hoped to use in getting beyond his pursuers. The delay enabled Sheridan, with 18,000 mounted men, to seize the Confederate line of retreat at Jetersville and cut Lee off from Danville. The Confederate army therefore turned to the right and retreated towards Farmville, hoping to be able to reach Lynchburg; but Sheridan by a forced march threw himself across Lee's path on the night of the 8th of April, near Appomattox Station. The next morning Sheridan was joined by the Army of the James, under General Ord. The Army of the Potomac at the same time was closing in rapidly in Lee's rear. Seeing that the effort to retreat was hopeless, General Lee asked for a suspension of hostilities. In an interview between Generals Grant and Lee, on the same day, the terms of the surrender were arranged. General Grant treated the vanquished army with great generosity. The Confederates were fed by their conquerors, and after laying down their arms and signing their paroles, were allowed to withdraw to their homes. On the 12th of April the vanquished army formally laid down its arms at Appomattox Court House. About 7500 men with arms, and about 18,000 unarmed stragglers took part in the surrender.

The news of the capture of Richmond and Petersburg, and of the surrender of General Lee, was received in the North with great rejoicings. It was understood on all sides that this was practically the end of the struggle.

These rejoicings were suddenly brought to an end by the assassination of President Lincoln, at Ford's Theatre, in Washington, on the evening of the 14th of April. He was shot in his private box by John Wilkes Booth, and died the next morning. At the same time an attempt was made to murder Secretary Seward, who was confined to his bed by the effects of an accident. Booth was pursued into Virginia, and was killed in the attempt to capture him. His accomplices were secured, and were executed or imprisoned for various terms. The death of Mr. Lincoln was a severe blow to the country, and the manner of it caused great exasperation in the North. It was at first believed that the murder was encouraged by the South; but it is now plain that Booth, who was evidently insane, had no accom-

plices in that section. His dastardly act was regarded with horror by the Southern people.

After the fall of Richmond Mr. Davis and the various officers of his government repaired to General Johnston's army, which was near Raleigh. On the 10th of April General Sherman advanced from Goldsboro' towards Johnston's position, and steadily pressed the Confederate army back. On the 13th Sherman occupied Raleigh. Upon learning of the surrender of General Lee's army General Johnston was convinced that further resistance on his part was hopeless. He therefore opened negotiations with General Sherman, and on the 18th of April an agreement was signed by the two commanders for the surrender of the Confederate army. As this agreement provided for the restoration of the Southern States to their lost places in the Union, it was repudiated by the Federal Government, and Sherman was ordered to resume hostilities. General Johnston was at once notified by General Sherman of this order, and on the 26th of April entered into an agreement with him by which he surrendered to General Sherman all the Confederate forces under his command upon terms similar to those granted to General Lee by General Grant.

The example of Generals Lee and Johnston was followed by the other Confederate commanders throughout the South. The last to surrender was General E. Kirby Smith, in Texas, on the 26th of May. On the 29th of May President Johnson issued a proclamation announcing the close of the war and offering amnesty to all who had participated in it on the Confederate side, with the exception of fourteen specified classes.

Upon the surrender of Johnston's army Mr. Davis and the members of his former cabinet endeavored to make their way to the coast of Florida, from which they hoped to reach the West Indies. Some of them succeeded in doing so, but Mr. Davis was captured at Irwinsville, Georgia, on the 10th of May, and was sent as a prisoner to Fortress Monroe, where he was held in confinement until May, 1867.

The civil war was over. It had cost the country 1,000,000 of men in the killed and maimed for life of the two armies. In money it had cost probably as much as \$5,000,000,000.

By the death of Mr. Lincoln the Vice-President, Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, became President of the United States. He took the oath of office on the 15th of April, and at once entered upon the discharge of his duties.

The first task devolving upon the new administration was the dis-

banding of the army, which at the close of the war numbered over a million of men. It was successfully accomplished in the course of a few months.

At the close of the war the public debt amounted to \$2,700,000,000. The interest on this sum was \$133,000,000. Congress by a solemn resolution pledged the faith of the nation for the payment of the debt, principal and interest, and adopted a system of direct taxation to provide a revenue sufficient for the immediate wants of the Government.

The most important question of the day was the adjustment of the relations of the Southern States to the Union. President Johnson held that they had never been out of the Union, but had simply been in insurrection, and having been brought back, were entitled to resume their former positions upon adopting constitutions recognizing the new order of affairs. He thereupon recognized the States which complied with these conditions as members of the Federal Union.

On the 1st of February, 1865, Congress adopted the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, prohibiting slavery within the limits of the Union. Having been ratified by the requisite number of States, this amendment became a part of the Constitution in December, 1865.

Upon the assembling of Congress in December, 1865, the reconstruction acts of President Johnson were treated by that body as null and void, and the Senators and Representatives of the Southern States were refused admittance into Congress, which body insisted that the Union should not be "restored," but should be "reconstructed" upon an entirely new basis. This basis was the citizenship of the newly enfranchised negroes. This was secured by the adoption of the Fourteenth Amendment, which was ratified after a considerable struggle by the requisite number of States. It became a part of the Constitution in July, 1868. This amendment was at first rejected by all the Southern States except Tennessee, which State ratified it, and was readmitted into the Union by Congress. The quarrel which thus began between the President and Congress grew more bitter every day.

During this session Congress enacted a "Freedman's Bureau Bill," creating a department of the Federal Government for the care and protection of the newly emancipated negroes and the destitute whites of the South. It also adopted a "Civil Rights Bill," securing to the negro the rights of a citizen. Both measures were passed over the veto of the President.

As the quarrel between the President and Congress deepened, various efforts were made by the latter to hamper the executive and impair his powers. The Thirty-ninth Congress adopted for this purpose a measure known as the "Tenure of Office Act," by the terms of which the President was forbidden to remove any person from a civil office under the Government without the consent of the Senate. This measure was passed over the President's veto.

On the 1st of March, 1867, Nebraska was admitted into the Union as a State.

In February, 1867, Congress placed all the Southern States that had refused to ratify the fourteenth amendment under martial law, by depriving them of their State governments and erecting them into military districts. The writ of *habeas corpus* was suspended within their limits, and the will of a military commander was made the supreme law in each. These measures were also passed over the President's veto. The military commanders exercised their authority with fairness and moderation, and took measures for the early reconstruction of their respective districts as States. Conventions were summoned and delegates were returned representing the extreme views of the party in power. They proceeded to ratify the amendments to the Federal Constitution, and after a bitter and protracted struggle organized their respective State governments. On the 24th of June Congress passed a bill over the President's veto admitting the States of Arkansas, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina, and South Carolina into the Union. Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas having refused to ratify the fourteenth amendment, were refused admission into the Union.

In the meantime the President brought the quarrel between Congress and himself to a decisive issue. Having twice removed Mr. Stanton from the post of Secretary of War, in spite of the provisions of the Tenure of Office Act, which he held to be unconstitutional, he was impeached by the House of Representatives for a violation of this Act, on the 24th of February, 1868. The Senate met as a High Court of Impeachment, for the trial of the President, on the 5th of March, 1868. The trial lasted until the 26th of May, and resulted in the acquittal of the President of the charges preferred against him.

On the 13th of May, 1867, Jefferson Davis, who had been indicted for treason, was released from Fortress Monroe on bail. The indictment was subsequently quashed by the Government.

During the progress of the civil war the French Emperor had

forcibly intervened in the affairs of Mexico, and had brought about the downfall of the Mexican Republic and the establishment of an empire in that country, with the Austrian Archduke Maximilian as Emperor. The Government of the United States had regarded this course with undisguised hostility, but, being engaged in the effort to crush the resistance of the South, was obliged to limit its opposition to a protest. Upon the return of peace it took a bolder stand, and demanded of France the withdrawal of her troops from Mexico. The Emperor Napoleon hesitated for a while, but finally acceded to the American demand. The French troops were withdrawn from Mexico at the close of the year 1866, and the Emperor Maximilian was left to face the Mexican people alone. They at once rose against him, took him prisoner, and shot him on the 19th of June, 1867.

In July, 1866, a telegraphic cable was laid across the Atlantic from Valentia Bay, in Ireland, to Heart's Content, in Newfoundland. Since then telegraphic communication between America and Europe has been uninterrupted.

On the 29th of March, 1867, a treaty was concluded between the United States and Russia, by which the former purchased, for the sum of \$7,200,000, all the Russian possessions in America. The new territory received the name of Alaska.

In the fall of 1868 General Ulysses S. Grant, the candidate of the Republican party, was elected President of the United States by a popular vote of 2,985,031, over 2,648,830 votes cast for Horatio Seymour, his Democratic competitor. In the Electoral College Grant received 217 votes and Seymour 77. The States of Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas were not allowed to take part in the election.

In February, 1869, Congress adopted the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which provides that "The right of the citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude." This amendment became a part of the Constitution in March, 1870.

On the 4th of March, 1869, General Grant was inaugurated President of the United States.

On the 10th of May, 1869, the Pacific Railway, extending from Omaha, Nebraska, to San Francisco, California, was completed.

In the year 1870 the ninth census of the United States showed the population of the country to be 38,558,371 souls.

In the same year the work of reconstruction was concluded. On

the 26th of January, 1870, the State of Virginia, having ratified the amendments to the Constitution, was readmitted into the Union. On the 17th of February, 1870, Mississippi was readmitted upon the same terms. Texas was the last to ratify the amendments; but having done so at last, was readmitted before the close of the year.

Since the opening of President Lincoln's second term of office negotiations had been in progress with Great Britain for the settlement of the claims advanced by the United States against that power for the losses inflicted upon American commerce during the civil war by Confederate cruisers, built, equipped, and manned in Great Britain. The British Government, after long refusing to admit its responsibility for these acts, at length consented to submit the matter to a Board of Arbitration. This Board assembled at Geneva, in Switzerland, on the 15th of April, 1872, and on the 27th of June made its award in favor of the United States. The claims of the United States were admitted; the damages awarded to that Government amounting to \$16,250,000. They were paid in due time by Great Britain. Thus were settled the famous "Alabama Claims" (so called from the fact that the Confederate cruiser "Alabama" caused the greater part of the loss), which at one time threatened to embroil the two countries in war.

On the night of Sunday, October 8th, 1871, a fire broke out in Chicago, and raged with tremendous violence for two days, laying the greater part of the city in ashes. It was the greatest conflagration of modern times, destroying about \$196,000,000 worth of property and rendering 98,000 persons homeless.

In the fall of 1872 the Presidential election occurred. General Grant was renominated by the Republican party. A new party—the Liberal Republican—nominated Horace Greeley for its candidate, and he was endorsed and supported by the Democratic party. The campaign resulted in the election of General Grant by an overwhelming majority. A deplorable sequel to the struggle, which was unprecedented in its bitterness, was the death of Horace Greeley, who died on the 29th of November, 1872.

On the 9th of November, 1872, a fire broke out in Boston and burned until the 10th. It destroyed the greater portion of the business quarter of the city and inflicted upon it a loss of \$78,000,000.

On the 4th of March, 1873, General Grant was inaugurated a second time, at Washington, with great pomp. Twelve thousand troops from various parts of the country took part in the procession that escorted him to the Capitol.

Since 1868 a revolution had been in progress in the island of Cuba. Great sympathy had been manifested for the patriots by the people of the United States, but the Government had faithfully observed its duties as a friendly and neutral power. In spite of its efforts, however, several expeditions managed to leave American ports for the assistance of the Cubans. One of these embarked in the steamer "Virginius," which was overhauled by the Spanish war steamer "Tornado," on the high seas, and was carried as a prize into the harbor of Santiago de Cuba. The American flag was flying from the "Virginius" at the time of her capture, and she was not in Spanish waters. The officers and a portion of the crew and passengers of the captured steamer were shot by order of a hastily summoned court-martial, at Santiago de Cuba. The American Consul exerted himself to save them, but was grossly insulted by the Spanish officials, and was not allowed to communicate with his Government by telegraph.

The news of these outrages created the most intense excitement in the United States, and the popular voice demanded the instant punishment of Spain for the insult to our flag. The Government acted with firmness and prudence. A strong naval force was sent to the West Indies, the execution of the surviving prisoners was prevented, and their restoration to liberty and the surrender of the "Virginius" demanded. The captives were set at liberty and the steamer was delivered up off the port of Havana.

On the 17th of September, 1873, a severe financial crisis, known as "the railroad panic," burst upon the country. The panic was followed by several years of great financial distress.

On the 4th of March, 1875, Colorado was admitted into the Union as a State.

On the 19th of April, 1875, the one hundredth anniversary of the battles of Lexington and Concord was celebrated with great rejoicing.

As early as 1872 measures were begun for the proper observance of the one hundredth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence. It was decided to celebrate it by an international exhibition of the products of the country, to be held at Philadelphia in 1876. All nations were invited to participate in it. The exhibition will undoubtedly be one of the prominent events of the century.

THE NEW ENGLAND STATES.

MAINE.

Area,	31,766 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	628,279
Population in 1870,	626,915

MAINE is the most easterly of the United States. It is situated between latitude $42^{\circ} 57'$ and $47^{\circ} 32' N.$, and longitude $66^{\circ} 52'$ and $71^{\circ} 06' W.$ Its extreme length, from north to south, is 303 miles, and its extreme width 212 miles. Its average length is about 200 miles, and its average width about 160 miles. It covers an area of 20,330,240 acres. It is bounded on the north and northwest by Canada, on the east by New Brunswick, on the south and southeast by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by New Hampshire.

TOPOGRAPHY.

Beginning on the west at Kittery Point, and following the general coast line to Quoddy Head, on the east, the shore of Maine measures about 278 miles; but if we follow its indentations, and include the islands, the coast line will measure 2486 miles. The coast is deeply indented with numerous bays and inlets, many of which form excellent harbors. Many islands lie along the shore, some of them of considerable size.

Mount Desert, the principal island, is situated in Frenchman's Bay, and forms a part of Hancock county. It comprises an area of 60,000 acres, and is 15 miles long, and 12 broad. It is traversed from west to north by a range of thirteen granite peaks, rising to a height of from 1500 to 2300 feet. Mount Adam, or Mount Green, is the highest of these. Several beautiful lakes lie high up in these mountains. Some of these are quite large, and from nearly all of them flow clear,

cool streams, abounding in trout. The southeastern coast is formed of huge cliffs, several hundred feet high. A narrow bay enters the island from the south side, and extends into the interior in a northerly direction for about seven miles. The scenery of the island is surpassingly grand and beautiful, and attracts many visitors and artists. Mount Desert is divided into 3 townships, Eden, Tremont, and Mount Desert. It contains 6 small villages, 9 post-offices, 8 churches, and over 50 schools. Its population is about 4000. Shipbuilding and mackerel fisheries are carried on, and there is regular steamboat communication with Portland and Bangor. The island was discovered and named by the French near the year 1600. In 1613, a small French settlement was formed here, which was broken up soon after by an expedition from Virginia. It was first permanently settled by Abraham Somes, in 1761. Twenty miles to the southward is Mount Desert Rock, with a fixed light, 50 feet above the sea.

The other islands of the State which merit notice are Isle au Haut, at the entrance to Penobscot Bay, Deer, Long, and Fox islands, in that bay, and the Isle of Shoals, a group belonging in part to New Hampshire.

The principal Bays are Passamaquoddy, Machias, Pleasant, Frenchman's, Penobscot, Muscongus, Casco, and Saco.

Passamaquoddy Bay lies at the southeast extremity of Maine, and separates the State from the British province of New Brunswick. It extends inland about 15 miles, and is 10 miles wide. It is irregular in shape, contains a number of islands, affords numerous good harbors, and receives the waters of the St. Croix River.

Frenchman's Bay extends inland about 30 miles. It contains Mount Desert and several other islands, and abounds in good harbors, which are never closed by ice.

Casco Bay does not extend very far inland, but lies along the coast for a distance of 20 miles. It contains nearly 300 islands. Portland harbor opens upon it.

The principal Rivers are the Penobscot, the Kennebec, the Androscoggin, the Saco, the Woolastook, and the Aroostook.

The Penobscot is the largest river in the State. It is formed by two branches, the East and the West, which rise in northern Maine, and unite in the upper part of Penobscot county, near the centre of the State. The general course of the river is south-southwest, and it flows into the sea through Penobscot Bay. Its length from its mouth to the headwaters of its western and larger branch, is about 300 miles,

but from the junction of the two branches to its mouth, the distance is only 135 miles. It meets the tide water at Bangor, 60 miles from the sea. At this point the tides rise to a height of 17 feet. The river is navigable to Bangor for vessels of all classes, and for small steamers above that place. It receives through the West branch the waters of Chesuncook and Pemadumcook lakes, and through the East branch those of the Seboois lakes. Its upper part affords valuable water power. There are a number of villages and towns on the river. Bangor is the only city on its banks.

The Kennebec River rises in Moosehead Lake, in Somerset county, Maine, and flows southward into the Atlantic Ocean. Its length is 150 miles, and as its total descent in this distance is over 1000 feet, it affords most excellent water power. It is navigable for sloops to Hallowell, 40 miles, and for all vessels to Bath, 12 miles from the sea. It is closed by ice early in December, and remains frozen until early in April. Bath, Hallowell, Augusta, Waterville, and Norridgewock are the principal towns on its shores. The *Androscoggin* is a tributary of the Kennebec. It rises in Coos county, New Hampshire, and empties into the Kennebec 20 miles from the sea. It is 140 miles long.

The Saco River rises among the White Mountains, in Coos county, New Hampshire, and flowing southeasterly through Maine, empties into the Atlantic near the northeast corner of York county. It is broken in several places by considerable falls, which afford fine water power, and is subject to sudden and dangerous freshets. The last falls are only 4 miles from the sea. Saco, Biddeford, and Hollis are its principal towns.

The *Woolastook* and *Aroostook* drain the northern part of the State, and flow into the St. John, a river of New Brunswick.

The State is well supplied with rivers and other streams, which not only afford fine water power, but furnish a means of floating vast quantities of lumber from the interior to the coast.

A number of Lakes are scattered through Maine, some of which are very beautiful. The principal are Umbagog, Sebec, Chesuncook, Schoodic, Baskahegan, Long, Portage, Eagle, Madawaska, Millikonet, and Sebago.

Moosehead Lake is the largest in the State. It is situated between Somerset and Piscataquis counties, and is very irregular in shape. It is about 35 miles long, and ten miles across at its widest point. The waters are very deep, and abound in trout. The scenery is wild and

beautiful. On the west side Mount Kineo overhangs the water at a height of 600 feet, and affords a view of great but wild beauty. An hotel has been erected about midway, for the accommodation of travellers. Numerous islands stud the lake, which is navigated by steamers engaged in towing lumber to the Kennebec River, which forms the outlet.

The surface of the State is generally hilly and diversified. Towards the coast it is level, but rises towards the interior. A chain of detached mountains, supposed to be an extension of the White Mountains of New Hampshire, crosses the State from west to northeast, terminating in Mars Hill on the border of New Brunswick. These peaks rise to a considerable elevation, and are very beautiful.

Mount Katahdin, 5385 feet high, is the best known, as well as the most picturesque. It is situated in the eastern part of Piscataquis county, and is frequently visited by artists and the more daring tourists. The other peaks are the Saddleback, Bigelow, Abraham, North and South Russell, and the Haystack.

The Forests of Maine furnish an immense amount of valuable lumber, and large numbers of hardy men are employed in cutting and floating the logs down the streams. The great forests lie in the upper part of the State, around the sources of the Kennebec, Penobscot, Aroostook, and Woolastook rivers. Mr. Charles Lanman thus pleasantly describes them :

“Their extent can only be realized by fixing the mind upon the whole northern half of the State, which they cover with their sombre green, and by remembering the fact that no less than four splendid rivers have their birth in this great wilderness—the St. Croix, the Penobscot, the Kennebec, and the Androscoggin. According to such figures as we have been able to collect, the number of saw-mills and other lumbering machines in operation on the above rivers, just before the rebellion, was nearly 900, the number of men employed about 17,000, and of horses and oxen perhaps 10,000; while the towns which are, to a great extent, supported by the lumbering business are Calais, Bangor, Augusta, and Brunswick, as well as Portland. The predominating tree in the wilderness under consideration, as is the case in Minnesota and Wisconsin, is the white pine, but the hemlock, the fir, and the spruce are also abundant in all its borders. It is said that fifty years ago specimens of the pine were found in Maine which attained the height of more than 200 feet, but in these times it is but seldom that we find a tree exceeding 150 feet in length. The grand



THE PINE FORESTS OF MAINE.

old monarchs of the land would seem to have perished with grief on beholding the ravages of man. But there is an aristocracy existing in these woods at the present day, for it has been observed that there are different classes of trees—families of nobility clustering together in one place—while the more plebeian varieties congregate in communities by themselves. Were it not for the changing seasons and its living creatures, the monotony of this forest scenery would be well nigh unbearable; but summer fills every sunny nook with its bright flowers, and winter scatters everywhere the fantastic creations of the frost and snow. It is in these solitudes that the bold and hardy Penobscot Indian hunter tracks the moose and the deer, fights the bear in his den, decoys the gray wolf, and sets his traps for the wild cat

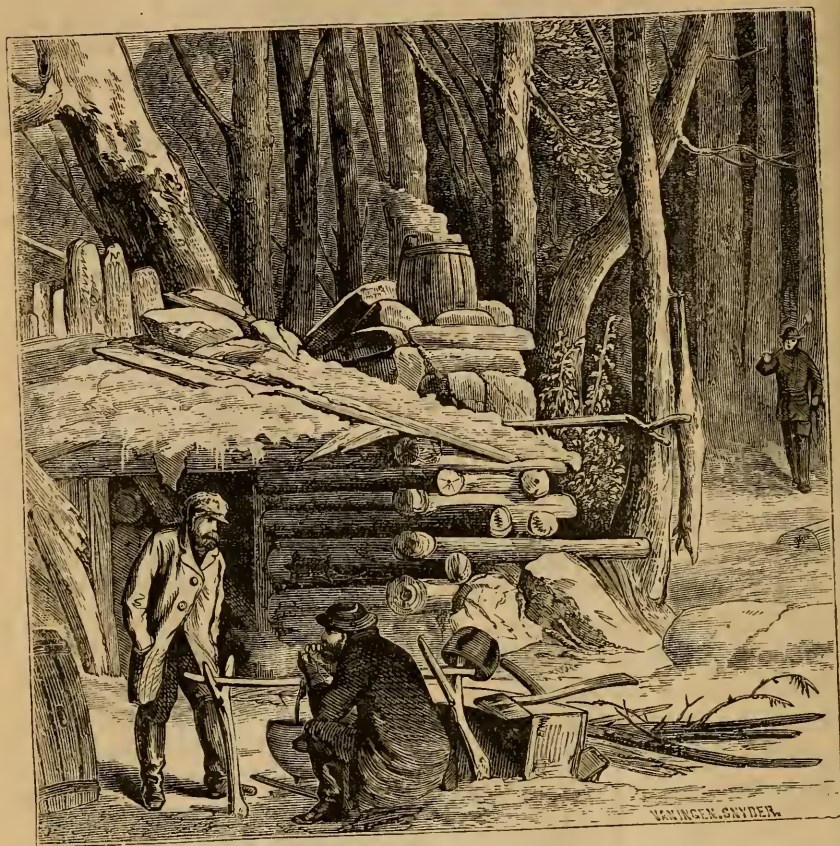
and mink, the marten, the sable, and the beaver; and if, in the most genial seasons, there should be found a scarcity of birds, you can never fail to hear the plaintive whistle of the Canada bird, or *musci-capa* of scientific dreamers. In the Valley of the Potomac this favorite bird of ours is the very first harbinger of spring, coming from the South even before the blue-bird; and when heard there late in autumn, you may be sure that winter has asserted his empire on the Northern frontiers. We have heard it in the pine forests of Florida, among the mountains of Tennessee, along the glorious rivers of New Brunswick, Canada, and a part of Labrador, but never with more pleasure than in the forests of Maine. When away from home, it always carries us back in fancy to the region where our lot is cast, and to our friends; and when at home it reminds us of far-off places and other friends linked with happy recollections. Its whole life, it seems to us, is devoted to singing, in a kind of monotone, about the joys of the wilderness.

“Of permanent human inhabitants, the forests of Maine can boast of but a small supply; but for about nine months in the year the hardy lumbermen, consisting of explorers and choppers, of swampers, or road-cutters, and teamsters, make their dim, interminable aisles alive and cheery with their presence and manifold employments. In the autumn, small parties, equipped like trappers, go up the rivers in canoes and locate the lands which are to be grappled with in winter; and when winter comes, the great majority, with their oxen and axes, their salt pork and flour, migrate to the selected grounds, and, after housing themselves and their cattle in cabins half covered with snow, they proceed to the work of extermination; and when the spring arrives, down to the tributary streams do they drag their logs; and when the first great thaw arrives, away they go down the larger rivers, driving the produce of their toil through lakes and lakelets, and over waterfalls, with many a wild and wayward shout, until they reach the booms where they would be; and then for home and their happy families nearer the sea. All this for money? Most true. But where will you find better specimens of true manhood than among these lumbermen? And as for poetry and romance, where can we find their equal among the laborers for hire in any land but ours? Fancy the heart-bursts of true patriotism, and the wild stories told by the side of their watch-fires, the hoot of the great white owl at midnight in those dim solitudes, the white moonlight on the still whiter snow, the ringing cadences of the frost, the wolf prowling for food

around the sleeping camps, the cave-like forest pictured against the cold blue sky, the terrible storms of sleet and hail, and then the thousand dreams of wives and children sleeping in their distant and peaceful *homes*.

"The continuousness of the Maine woods, taken in connection with their extent, is one of their most impressive features. Unless there were something to relieve their monotony, a sensitive man could never have journeyed from one extremity to another without becoming a personification of gloom; but behold with what exquisite taste and skill nature interposes her relief! She plants old Moosehead near the centre of the great forest, and scatters a thousand smaller gems of purest water on every side; bids a few mountain peaks rise up as watch-towers against the northern sky; sends the most beautiful rivers like flashes of light in every direction singing to the sea; and in a few localities spreads out those wonderful fields which have been denominated 'oceans of moss,' sometimes several feet in thickness, and in one instance covering a space of many miles. But more than this: around the lakes and along the water-courses are permitted to grow as great a variety of the more delicate and graceful trees as the climate will allow, with shrubs and vines, and flowers innumerable. All this is the workmanship of nature; but it is man who marks the earth with ruin, and, not content with robbing the old forests of their giant treasures, he sometimes sets them on fire for his amusement, or by accident, and thus come into existence the desolate burnt districts to take the places of trees once valuable, and grand, and beautiful.

"The last object that the wide-awake tourist beholds on leaving the great wilderness of Maine, is Mount Katahdin; and that reminds us of the mountain forests of the Northern and Southern States. The representative peaks of the North are Katahdin, Mount Washington, the Camel's Hump, Tahawus, and High Peak; and around all these are to be found the hemlock and spruce, the cedar and fir, the maple, the ash, the elm, and the birch, in such numbers, and variety, and beauty as to bewilder the mind. The declivities up which travellers climb oftentimes frown upon them as if to warn them of coming danger, but the tough and rugged trees plant their roots in the rocky fissures and hold on with heroic fortitude; nor do they cease their persevering efforts, while apparently changing their places at each zone, until, robbed of their luxuriance and reduced to mere bushes by the savage winds and by the cold, they peep out from their hiding places only to behold the stupendous fields of granite desolation, thou-



A LUMBERMAN'S CAMP IN THE WOODS OF MAINE.

sands of feet above the sea, shrouded in fogs, or bounded by the sea. Inaccessible, for the most part, as are these Northern forests, the enterprise of man has been such as to penetrate their hidden depths for his advantage, and plunder them of their wealth. In Maine, selfish man robs them of their stately leaders; in New Hampshire, he builds fairy-like palaces, and invites the world to come there and be happy; in Vermont, he gashes the maple trees and compels them to yield up, for his enjoyment, the sweetness of their lives; and in New York he hammers out of their mountain sides, in their lonely retreats, the valued iron ore, and meanly strips the hemlock of its shaggy bark, and leaves it to perish ingloriously upon the hills."

MINERALS.

The mineral resources of Maine are limited. Copper pyrites, lead, and manganese are found in small quantities, but iron, lime, and a fine granite are plentiful. The principal iron deposit occurs on the Aroostook River, about 50 miles from its mouth, and the country along the west branch of the Penobscot furnishes a limited quantity of an excellent marble. A fine quality of slate is found in the region between the sources of the Kennebec and St. John rivers. The granite of which the Treasury Extension in Washington City is built, was brought from the coast of Maine.

CLIMATE.

The climate of Maine is considered healthy, in spite of the extreme northeastern situation of the State, because it is less subject than that of the other New England States to sudden and violent changes. The winters are severe and long. The mercury sometimes falls to 20 or 30 degrees below zero, but for the greater part of the season there is a uniform temperature averaging about 18°. The summers, though short, are warm. The thermometer has been known to indicate a heat of 100°, but the average temperature is about 60°. The snow lies on the ground from 3 to 5 months, and the season of vegetation lasts scarcely 4 months. The spring and early summer are rendered unpleasant by the cold northeast winds, which sweep down from the ice-fields of the Atlantic.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The soil is not uniform. Between the Kennebec and Penobscot, the lands are generally good and productive, and the same may be said of the valley of the St. John and the country watered by some of the lesser rivers. The lands in the mountainous districts and along the coast are for the most part poor, and require laborious culture.

In 1869, there were 2,704,133 acres of improved lands, and 2,996,622 acres of unimproved lands in the State. Its agricultural wealth in the same year may be stated as follows:

Cash value of farms,	\$80,000,000
Value of farming implements and machinery,	\$3,400,000
Number of horses,	71,110
“ asses and mules,	168

Number of milch cows,	190,110
“ other cattle,	230,110
“ sheep,	501,210
“ swine,	65,340
Value of domestic animals,	\$19,437,538
Bushels of wheat,	248,000
“ rye,	158,000
“ Indian corn,	1,450,000
“ oats,	3,200,000
“ peas and beans,	346,915
“ Irish potatoes,	7,500,000
“ barley,	750,000
“ buckwheat,	350,000
“ clover-seed,	50,000
Pounds of wool,	1,495,063
“ butter,	11,687,781
“ cheese,	1,799,862
“ hops,	102,987
“ flax,	17,081
“ maple sugar,	306,742
“ beeswax and honey,	323,454
Tons of hay,	1,050,000
Value of orchard products,	\$501,767
“ market garden products,	\$194,006
“ home made manufactures,	\$490,787
“ slaughtered animals,	\$2,780,179

COMMERCE.

The staple export of Maine is lumber. The coast offers the best inducements for commerce of any State in the Union. It is so thickly studded with bays and navigable rivers that vessels can find an excellent harbor at any point along its whole length. Shipbuilding is carried on to a considerable extent. The commercial returns for the year 1870 were as follows:

Value of lumber produced during the year . .	\$11,728,122
Product of the fisheries	979,610

Besides these large quantities of marble, granite, lime, and ice are produced, of which we have no statistics. The tonnage owned in the State in 1863 was 774,040 tons.

In 1863, the total foreign imports were \$3,911,468, and the exports \$7,016,342. In 1870 this State built ships to the value of \$2,358,445.

MANUFACTURES.

According to the census of 1870, there were in that year 5550 establishments in Maine devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts. They employed 49,180 hands, possessed a capital of \$39,796,190, consumed raw material to the amount of \$49,379,757 (including fuel), and produced goods worth \$79,497,521. Of these establishments, 23 were cotton manufactories, employing 2606 male and 6246 female hands, consuming annually \$6,716,780 worth of raw material, paying annually \$2,565,197 for labor, and producing \$11,844,181 worth of goods; and 56 were woollen mills, with a capital of \$4,092,685, employing 1471 male and 1244 female hands, consuming \$3,761,715 worth of raw material, paying \$1,035,483 for labor, and producing goods worth \$6,150,620. There were \$4,939,781 worth of leather; 7000 tons of rolled iron, worth \$1,591,196; \$1,791,823 worth of steam engines and machinery; \$231,991 worth of agricultural implements; \$4,415,998 worth of flour; and \$93,050 worth of malt and \$215,715 worth of spirituous liquors produced during the same year. The manufacturing interest of Maine has greatly increased since 1860. In 1860, the capital invested in manufactures amounted to \$22,044,020 and the annual value of fabrics produced to \$38,193,284. The water-power of the State is immense, and holds out the best inducements to manufacturers.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

The State is making steady progress in internal improvements. In 1860, there were 14 railroads in Maine, having an aggregate length in the State of 472 miles, which had been constructed at a cost of \$16,576,385. The Grand Trunk, which extends from Portland, through New Hampshire and Vermont to Quebec and Montreal in Canada, passes through Maine for but a short distance. It is a first-class road, in respect to the amount of business done by it. The Maine Central is 138 miles long, and extends from Portland to Bangor, passing through Auburn and Waterville. The Portland and Kennebec, extending from Portland to Skowhegan, through Richmond, Gardiner and Augusta, is 100 miles long. There are other thriving lines in the State, one of which (the Portland, Saco, and Portsmouth) connects Portland with Portsmouth, N. H.

The only canal in the State is the Cumberland-Oxford, uniting

Portland with Sebago, Brandy, and Long Ponds. It is 20 miles long, and has 26 locks. Together with the Songo River improvements, it forms a navigable line of 50 miles, constructed at a cost of \$50,000.

EDUCATION.

Maine has a permanent school fund, drawn from the sale of lands donated for that purpose by the State. Besides this, the banks are taxed one-half of one per cent. on their capital, and the towns are assessed at the rate of 40 cents per capita, for educational purposes. In 1860, Maine had 2 colleges and 337 students, 110 academies and other schools, with 8273 pupils, and 4376 public schools with 186,717 pupils. In the same year, the whole number of pupils, between the ages of 4 and 21 years, at all the schools in the State, was 244,920. In 1868, this number had been reduced to 225,290, a falling off due to the actual decrease of children in the State. In 1850, the proportion of minors in the State was 49 per cent. of the whole population, but in 1860 it was only 36 per cent. This, too, in spite of the fact that the population of Maine has steadily grown larger. It is doubtless due to the fact that children are not now as much desired as in the better days of the community. * In 1868, the number of schools in the State was 3782.

A writer in the *Annual Cyclopædia* for 1867, says: "The permanent school fund amounts to \$245,121.23, the income of which for the past year is \$13,244.14. The receipts from the bank tax are rapidly falling off, being but \$4475. The people are determined, however, that the schools shall not suffer. They have raised, by direct taxation, the sum of \$518,292.97, an average of \$2.28 a scholar, and built seventy-nine new school-houses, at a cost of \$323,581.13. Add to this the sum of \$15,316.93, contributed to prolong public schools, with \$40,614.33, paid for private schools and academies, and \$6,428.25 paid out of the State for the same purposes, making an aggregate expenditure for schools of \$935,131.75, and you have abundant proof that the burdens and discouragements of the times are not allowed to diminish the interest of the people in common school education. There are also two Normal Schools, both of which are in a flourishing condition, and are liberally sustained.

"The State has chartered a College of Agricultural and Mechanic

* *Appleton's Cyclopædia*, 1865.

Arts, and commenced the erection of suitable buildings for its uses. . . . The Reform School has entered upon a course of unusual prosperity."

In 1870, there were 3,334 libraries, containing a total of 984,510 volumes. There were 400 public libraries, comprising 500,000 vols.

In the same year, there were 65 newspapers and periodicals published in the State. These consisted of 7 daily, 1 tri-weekly, and 47 weekly political papers, 3 weekly religious papers, and 10 journals of a miscellaneous character. These had an aggregate annual circulation of 9,867,680 copies.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The public institutions of Maine, are the State Prison, at Thomaston, the Insane Asylum, at Augusta, and the State Reform School, at Cape Elizabeth. The *State Prison* was much enlarged and improved in 1867. It is not adequate to the necessities of the community, however, and in 1867, was so overcrowded that its earnings fell \$7000 short of its expenditures. The number of prisoners in 1866 was 135, against 78 in 1865. The number of inmates in the *Insane Asylum* in 1867 was 303—144 men and 159 women. The institution is well supported by the State, and has received several endowments. The *State Reform School*, in 1870, contained 254 inmates, of whom 71 were recommitted during the year. The children, upon being admitted to this school, are employed on the farm or in the work-shops. They are kindly treated, and, as a general rule, a great change takes place for the better in their morals a few months after their commitment. The actual cost of the school to the State for 1868, was about \$13,945, the earnings of the boys making up the remainder of the expenses.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, the value of church property in Maine was \$5,200,853, and the number of churches, 1104.

FINANCES.

The public debt of the State on the 31st of December, 1873, was \$9,959,690, and is due in 1883 and 1889. The amount paid off in 1873 was \$50,000. The receipts of the Treasury for the fiscal

year 1874 were \$1,859,904, and the expenses of the State \$1,537,718. On January 1st, 1875, there was a cash balance in the Treasury of \$322,185. On the 1st of October, 1868, there were 61 National banks doing business in the State, with an aggregate capital of \$9,085,000.

GOVERNMENT.

The present Constitution of the State was adopted in 1820. Every adult male citizen of the United States, not a criminal, is entitled to a vote in the elections.

The Government of the State consists of a Legislature, comprising a Senate and House of Representatives, and a Governor, all chosen by the people. The Governor is elected annually, and is assisted in his executive duties by a Council of seven members, elected on joint ballot by the houses of the Legislature. The Senate consists of 31 members, and the House of Representatives of 151 members, all chosen annually by the people, on the second Monday in September. The Legislature meets at Augusta, on the first Wednesday in January in each year. The chief executive officers are the Secretary of State and the State Treasurer, both chosen by the joint ballot of the Legislature.

There is a probate court with a judge and register in each county, and municipal and police courts in the several cities. Cases originating within the jurisdiction of these bodies are tried before them. The *Supreme Judicial Court* of the State consists of a Chief Justice and seven Associate Justices, an Attorney General, and a Reporter of Decisions. Courts are held in three districts, for the purpose of hearing and determining cases brought before them. The Court for the Eastern district sits at Bangor, that for the Middle district at Augusta, and that for the Western district at Portland. The income of the State is derived chiefly from direct taxes, sales of land, and a tax on the banks. The seat of Government is established at Augusta.

For purposes of government, the State is divided into 16 counties.

HISTORY.

Maine was first visited in 1602 by Gosnold, who was followed in 1603 by Martin Pring. A French expedition, under Des Monts, passed the winter of 1604 at the present site of Calais, on the St. Croix. Des Monts took possession of the region of the Kennebec the next spring, and was granted a patent for it by the French King. The province was visited by Captain George Weymouth, in 1605,

and in 1607 the first colony was established by the Plymouth Company. This settlement was abandoned in one year. A French colony was sent out in 1613, by Madame de Guercheville, who had purchased the patent of Des Monts, and planted on Mount Desert Island for missionary purposes. This settlement was broken up by an expedition from Virginia. In 1614, the coast was thoroughly explored by Captain John Smith, who published an account of it on his return to England. The Plymouth Company obtained a renewal of their charter from James I., in 1620, and, as the region granted them included the present State of Massachusetts, bitterly opposed the formation of settlements by the Pilgrims at Plymouth and Salem, but without effect. In 1621, William Alexander, who subsequently became Earl of Stirling, purchased from the Company the territory east of the St. Croix River; which stream, until this day, forms the eastern boundary of Maine. The next year, Monhegan was settled by emigrants from Great Britain. Saco was settled in 1623. These settlements prospered even better than their founders had ventured to hope. In 1629, the Plymouth Company established the western boundary of Maine, by selling to John Mason the territory "lying between the Merrimack and Piscataqua rivers," to which they gave the name of New Hampshire. In 1635, the Company surrendered its charter to the king, and divided its territory among its members. The country between the Piscataquis and the Kennebec was assigned to Sir Ferdinando Gorges, who, in 1639, was confirmed in his possession by a formal charter from Charles I., who called the territory the Province of Maine. Gorges was also appointed Governor-General of New England with almost despotic powers. In 1640, he sent his son Thomas to Maine as his deputy. Thomas Gorges took up his residence at the settlement of Agamenticus, now the town of York, and in 1642 changed the name of the place to Gorgeana.

Since the settlement of the colony, the French had claimed the region between the St. Croix and the Penobscot, which they had settled under the name of Acadie, and after the death of the elder Gorges the province was still further divided among his heirs. These cut it up into four weak communities, whose helplessness laid them open to the encroachments of the French in Canada. Apprehensive of this result the colony of Massachusetts Bay, incited to such a course by the entreaties of many of the inhabitants, set up a claim, in 1651, to the province of Maine, which it declared had been granted to the colony by the original charter of Massachusetts. Commissioners were sent

to admit the province into the jurisdiction of the Bay Colony, but the authorities of Maine resisted them, and appealed to the Government of Great Britain. The people of Maine were adherents of the king and the established Church, and England was now ruled by the Puritans. Consequently Massachusetts won her cause, and Maine was declared a part of that Colony. Massachusetts made a generous use of her authority, however, and allowed the towns of Maine very much the same privileges and government as they now enjoy, and in religious matters was far more tolerant to them than to her own people. This forbearance, joined to the natural liberality of the province, entirely exempted it from the religious persecutions which have stained the history of the other colonies. In 1653, Cromwell declared void the transfer of Acadie to the French, which had been made by Charles I. in 1632, and appointed a Governor of that territory, who held his office until the treaty of Breda, in 1669, by which Acadie was restored to France. Upon the restoration of Charles II., the heirs of Sir Ferdinando Gorges succeeded in obtaining a royal order, restoring the province of Maine to them. Massachusetts resisted this order, but in 1670 settled the matter by purchasing the interests of the claimants for the sum of twelve hundred and fifty pounds sterling.

In 1675, King Philip's war began in New England. Maine came in for her full share in these horrors; and from this time until 1760, nearly one hundred years, was never free from incursions by the savages. This constant danger greatly retarded her progress. Settlers were afraid to venture within her limits, and many of those who had already established themselves there removed to the other colonies.

The Duke of York having received from Charles II. a grant of the Dutch territories in North America, set up a claim to the region between the Kennebec and St. Croix rivers; which claim was resisted by Massachusetts, who advanced her boundary to the west shore of Penobscot Bay. The duke sent Sir Edmund Andros to America, as Governor of New York and Maine; but his authority in the latter province was not recognized by Massachusetts. Upon the accession of the duke to the English throne as James II., Andros was made Governor of all New England, where he was guilty of the most outrageous extortion. The charter of Massachusetts having been declared forfeited, the Colony was powerless to protect the injured people, and Andros had his own way until the Revolution of 1688, which placed William and Mary on the English throne, overthrew him, and restored the former state of affairs.

During the Revolution, Maine, which continued to form a part of the State of Massachusetts, was almost entirely exempted from the disasters of the war; and the power of the savages being destroyed, commenced to increase rapidly in population and wealth. The war of 1812 exposed the province to great suffering at the hands of the English, who occupied and held the eastern portion of the State until the conclusion of peace.

In 1820, Massachusetts, wishing to offset the growing power of the Southern States, signified her willingness to part with Maine. A State Constitution was accordingly adopted by the people of the province, and on the 15th of March, 1820, Maine was admitted into the Union as a State.

The Treaty of 1783 failed to establish the eastern boundary of Maine with accuracy; and for more than half a century, the Governments of the United States and Great Britain were involved in a controversy concerning it, which at length bade fair to embroil the two countries in another war. In 1842, the Treaty of Washington adjusted the dispute and settled the boundary as it exists at present. The United States and Maine agreed to cede to Great Britain a small part of the territory claimed by her, in return for the free navigation of the St. John's and for Rouse's Point in New York.

During the Rebellion, Maine was subjected to two incursions of the Southern forces. On the night of the 29th of June, 1863, the officers and crew of a Confederate privateer captured the U. S. revenue cutter Caleb Cushing, in the harbor of Portland, and carried her to sea. They were pursued by two steamers manned by armed volunteers, and overhauled a short distance from the city. Finding escape impossible, they blew up the cutter, and took to their boats, but were speedily overtaken and made prisoners.

"At midday, on July 18th, 1864, a bold attempt was made to rob the Calais Bank, in that town, by a small party of rebel raiders from St. John, N. B., led by one Collins, a captain in a Mississippi regiment. But the town authorities having been previously put on their guard by the American Consul at St. John, three of the party were arrested and committed, and the remainder prudently kept out of the way. This attempt, though frustrated, created an uneasy feeling along the eastern frontier; and in Eastport, Calais, Belfast, and other border towns, volunteer organizations were formed for the purpose of patrolling the streets at night, and the regular police force was increased and armed."

During the Rebellion, Maine furnished an aggregate force of 71,558 men to the army and navy of the United States. Of these, 8446 were killed in battle or died from wounds and sickness, and 6642 were mustered out for disabilities resulting from wounds or sickness while in active service.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

The cities of Maine are Augusta, Bangor, Bath, Belfast, Biddeford, Calais, Gardiner, Hallowell, Portland, and Rockland. The principal towns are Camden, Eastport, Ellsworth, Frankfort, Kittery, Lewiston, Old Town, Saco, Thomaston, Waldoborough, Waterville, and Wiscasset.

AUGUSTA.

The city of Augusta is situated in Kennebec county, on the Kennebec River, at the head of navigation, 43 miles from the sea. It is 60 miles north-northeast of Portland by railroad, and 175 miles from Boston. It lies on the right bank of the Kennebec, which is spanned by two fine bridges, one used by vehicles and pedestrians and the other by the railroad. The city is built partly upon the crest of a hill, and partly along the river at the foot of the hill. The former portion is occupied principally by private residences, while the latter is devoted to business. It is well built, and contains many handsome edifices, the principal of which is the State House, a splendid structure of white granite, located in the southern part of the city, and fronted by a large and tasteful park. A United States Arsenal, and the State Insane Asylum, lie on the opposite side of the river, and are attractive features of the landscape.

Augusta is well supplied with water-power by means of a large dam constructed across the Kennebec, a short distance above the city. This dam also affords water enough for steamboat communication between Augusta and Waterville when the stream is not closed by ice. There are several large manufacturing establishments in the city, 4 or 5 banks, an excellent female academy, 9 or 10 churches, and 8 or 9 hotels. It is connected with Portland and Bangor by railroad and steamboat. The greater part of the business portion of the city was destroyed by fire in 1865. The population in 1870 was 7,808. The city was founded in 1754. Four weekly papers and one monthly are published in Augusta.

PORTLAND,

The principal city of the State, "is handsomely situated on a peninsula, occupying the ridge and side of a high point of land, in the southwest extremity of Casco Bay, and, on approaching it from the ocean, is seen to great advantage. The harbor is one of the best on the Atlantic coast, the anchorage being protected on every side by land, whilst the water is deep, and communication with the ocean direct and convenient. It is defended by Forts Preble, Scammell, and Gorges, and dotted over with lovely islands. These islands afford most delightful excursions, and are among the greatest attractions of the vicinity. On the highest point of the peninsula is an observatory, 70 feet in height, commanding a fine view of the city, harbor, and islands in the bay. The misty forms of the White Mountains, 60 miles distant, are discernible in clear weather. The original name of Portland was *Muchigonne*. It was first settled by the whites as an English colony in 1632, just two centuries before the charter of the present city was granted. On the night of the 4th of July, 1866, a fire occurred which swept away nearly one-half of the entire business portion of the city.

"Portland is elegantly built, and the streets beautifully shaded and embellished with trees, and so profusely, that there are said to be no less than 3000 of these rural delights. Congress Street, previous to the fire the main highway, follows the ridge of the peninsula through its entire extent. Among the public buildings of Portland, the City Hall (rebuilding), the Court House, and some of the churches, are worthy of particular attention. The Society of Natural History, organized 1843, possesses a fine cabinet, containing specimens of the ornithology of the State, more than 4000 species of shells, and a rich collection of mineralogical and geological specimens, and of fishes and reptiles. The Athenæum, incorporated in 1826, has a library of 12,000 volumes; and the Mercantile Library possesses, also, many valuable books. The Marine Hospital, erected in 1855, at a cost of \$80,000, is an imposing edifice. Brown & Co.'s extensive sugar refinery, wholly destroyed by the late fire, has been rebuilt, and will shortly be in operation. The city is being rebuilt as rapidly as possible. Population, 31,414. The vicinity has several fine drives."*

town, in 1786. In 1676, the savages made a descent upon it, and captured or killed thirty of the inhabitants, and compelled the rest to

* Hand-Book of American Travel.



CITY HALL AND COURT HOUSE, PORTLAND.

seek safety on a neighboring island. In 1689, the French and Indians made an unsuccessful attempt to capture the town ; but the next year the Indians were more successful. They took the forts erected for the defence of the settlement, massacred the garrison and carried one hundred of the inhabitants into captivity. The settlement was resumed the next year. On the 19th of November, 1775, Falmouth was bombarded and destroyed by a British fleet.

Ten newspapers and other journals are published in Portland.

BANGOR,

The second city in the State, is situated in Penobscot county, on the right bank of the Penobscot River, 60 miles from the sea, and 126 miles northeast of Portland, with which it is connected by railroad and steamer. The city is located at the mouth of the Kenduskeag River, a branch of the Penobscot, and is built on both banks of the former stream, the two divisions of the city being connected by several bridges. each about 570 feet long. A fine bridge crosses the Penob-

scot a short distance above the city, and unites Bangor with Brewer. This bridge marks the upper line of the harbor, which is about 1500 feet wide, with a depth of water sufficient for the largest vessels.

Bangor is the principal lumber port in the Union. Immense quantities of lumber are brought down the Penobscot, and shipped from this place by sea. During the season of navigation, which continues for about 8 months, over 2000 vessels leave this port laden with lumber. The city is also extensively engaged in the coast trade, in foreign commerce, and in shipbuilding.

Bangor is located upon high ground, commanding an extensive view of the surrounding country. It is well built, and contains several fine structures, the principal of which is the Custom House. It contains 12 or 13 banks, 11 churches, 4 of which are among the handsomest in the State; a theological seminary, and a number of flourishing schools. Two daily and 4 weekly newspapers are published in the city. The water-power is derived from a fall in the Kenduskeag, half a mile above its mouth, and is excellent. Several large factories, including founderies, machine shops, furniture manufactories, and saw mills, are established here. There is railroad communication to Old Town, on the Penobscot, and this road will soon be extended to Calais, on the border of New Brunswick. The population in 1870 was 18,289

MISCELLANY.

ARNOLD'S MARCH TO QUEBEC.

Hon. J. T. Headley, in his biography of the Rev. Samuel Spring, Chaplain of the expedition, thus describes this memorable march:

At length provisions began to grow scarce, and every one had to be put on short allowance. Mr. Spring took his three-quarters of a pound of pork per day cheerfully with the rest.

After incredible hardships, and the loss of 150 men, by sickness and desertion, the army at last reached the great carrying place, 15 miles long, extending from the Kennebec to the Dead River. Only 3 small ponds occurred the whole distance, on which the boats could be launched. The rest of the way they and the provisions, ammunitions, etc., had to be carried on men's shoulders. This was a terrific strain on the army, and the dispiriting effect upon the soldiers was not relieved by the appearance of the Dead River, when they reached it, for it moved sluggish and dark like the waters of oblivion through the silent and motionless forest. Day after day they toiled up this sluggish stream, between the monotonous walls of forest that lined its banks, until it seemed as if there was no outlet or opening to the apparently interminable wilderness. At every bend, the eye strained forward to catch some indication of change, and when at last they came

in sight of a snow-covered mountain in the distance, telling them there was an outer world after all, the men sent up a shout that woke the echoes far and wide.

Near its base they encamped 3 days, and Spring spent most of the time in visiting the sick, and praying with them. The army had scarcely got under way again, when the heavens became overcast; dark and angry clouds swept the heavens, and the heavy winds sobbed and moaned through the forest. Soon the rain came down in torrents. Side by side with the drenched soldier the tall chaplain trudged uncomplainingly on, and lay down like him on the wet ground at night. It poured without cessation for 3 days, shedding still deeper gloom over the army. The river rose steadily the whole time, till the sluggish current at length swept down with such velocity and power that the boats could with difficulty stem it. On the third night, just as the soldiers had lain down to rest, after having kindled a huge fire, Mr. Spring heard a roar in the forest above them like the sound of the surf beating upon the shore, and the next moment the glancing waters were seen sweeping through the trees on both sides of the stream. In an instant the camp was alive with shouts and cries rising above the turbulent flood that deluged the ground on which they stood. The fires were extinguished, and in the tumult, and confusion, and darkness, no one knew which way to flee for safety, or what to do. In this state of uncertainty and dread the night wore away. The daylight revealed to them a spectacle sad enough to fill the bravest heart with discouragement. Boats had drifted into the forest, and as far as the eye could reach the level ground was one broad lake, out of which arose the dark stems of the trees like an endless succession of columns. In nine hours the water rose 8 feet, totally obliterating the shores of Dead River.

But the provisions were getting lower and lower, and Arnold could not wait for the river to subside. The army was, therefore, pushed on, slowly stemming the flood; but seven boats, carrying provisions, were caught in the whirling, angry waters, and upset, and all their contents destroyed.

The boldest now paused in dismay, for only 12 days' provisions remained, while 30 miles across the mountain were to be traversed before they could reach the head waters of the Chaudière, that flowed into the St. Lawrence. A council of war was called to decide what should be done in this crisis of affairs. They had now been a month away from civilization, the sick were increasing, while famine was staring them in the face. It was determined at length to leave the sick there, and despatch orders to Colonels Green and Knox, in the rear, to hasten up, and take them back to Cambridge.

Here was an opportunity for the young chaplain to abandon the expedition, and yet apparently be in the path of duty. He had had enough, one would think, of toil, exposure, and suffering, not to wish to face still greater hardships, and perhaps death itself, by famine in the wilderness, he following its fortunes. But he believed the welfare of his country was deeply involved in its fate, and he determined, come what would, to share its vicissitudes, hazards, and destiny. Having, therefore, prayed with the sick, encouraged the desponding with the promise that relief would soon come, and pointed those whom he believed dying to the Saviour of men, and commended all to the care and mercy of God, he bade them farewell, and moved forward with the advancing column.

The cold, autumnal rains had now turned into snow, which, sifting down through the leafless tree-tops, covered the weary, wan, and straggling column with a winding sheet, that seemed to be wrapping it for the tomb. After they left the sick in the wilderness, they passed 17 falls before they reached the head-

waters of Dead River. It was still 4 miles across to the Chaudière, down which they were to float to the St. Lawrence.

Here, on the summit of the hills on which the waters divide, one part flowing south and the other north, Arnold distributed the last provisions to the separate companies, and, taking only 13 men, pushed on for the Chaudière. He told those left behind, in parting, that he would obtain provisions for them in advance, if human efforts could procure them; but directed them to follow after as fast as they could, for, he added, their only safety lay in advancing. Spring remained behind with the army, to share its privations and its fate, whatever that might be. The gallant fellows gave their indomitable leader three parting cheers, and then began to heave their heavy boats from the water. Hoisting them upon their shoulders, while others were loaded down with baggage and ammunition, and others still dragged the few pieces of artillery along like cattle, they staggered on through the forest. The scanty provisions that were left them, though eked out with the greatest parsimony, grew rapidly less, and finally failed entirely. Under the low rations and severe labor combined, the men had gradually grown weaker and weaker, and now, pale and emaciated, looked on each other in mute inquiry. A council of war was called, and it was determined to kill the dogs they had with them, and push on till this loathsome supply was exhausted. These faithful animals, hitherto the companions of their toils, were slain and divided among the different companies. After the bodies were devoured, their legs and even claws were boiled for soup.

It was a sad sight to see the groups of half-famished soldiers seated together around a fire, watching with eager looks the pot containing this refuse of the dogs, and gazing with strange meaning into each other's eyes. The chaplain fared like the rest, and famine and incessant toil and exposure were telling on him as well as on the soldiers. The tall frame grew less erect, and the wan face showed that starvation was eating away his life. Trusting, however, in God, whom he served, he endured all cheerfully, and bore that famished multitude on his heart to the throne of heavenly grace. The soldiers, in all their sufferings, thought of him with the deepest sympathy, and could not but feel encouraged when they saw his serene, though emaciated countenance, and listened to his expressions of calm confidence in God, that he would yet deliver them. He often walked through the woods to look at the various groups, and see where he could be of most service. His heart bled at the destitution he witnessed on every side. One day he came upon a company gathered around a fire, boiling some dogs' claws they had preserved to make soup with. As he paused to look at them, they rose, and, in true kindness of heart, urged him to share their meagre, disgusting broth. It was a novel, but touching evidence of the deep affection they bore their young chaplain, and told, in language stronger than words, what an example of patient endurance he had shown, and how kind and faithful had been his labors among them.

At last the dogs gave out, and then the soldiers tore off their moose-skin mocasins, and boiled them to extract a little nourishment. The feet could stand the November frosts better than their stomachs endure the gnawings of famine. They reached at length the banks of the Chaudière, and launched their boats. The current, however, was swollen and rapid—now boiling amid the rocks, and now shooting like an arrow around a jutting precipice. On such a turbulent flood the boats soon became unmanageable, and one after another was stranded or shivered into fragments, till nearly all were destroyed.

They were still 30 miles from the French settlements, and now were compelled to shoulder their burdens, and advance on foot, in straggling parties, through the forest. During all these perils and sufferings, scarce a Sabbath passed in which Spring did not mount his pulpit of knapsacks, and preach to the troops, while every morning, before the march began, his earnest prayer arose to God for help.

The last miserable substitute for food was at length exhausted, and with empty stomachs and bowed forms they slowly, despairingly toiled onward, while all along their track the snow was stained with blood. As they were now approaching the French settlements, severe discipline was enforced. They needed no fires to cook their food, for they had none to cook; but none was allowed them to warm themselves by, and strict orders were given not to discharge a gun for any purpose. While the weary column was thus staggering silently on, suddenly the report of a musket was heard far in advance, then another, and another, till twenty echoed through the forest. They ceased, and then a long shout rolled back through the solitude, producing the wildest excitement. Mr. Spring never forgot that thrilling scene, and long after, in speaking of it, said: "The army was starving, but moving on. The pioneers, who were ahead to clear the way, roused suddenly a noble moose. It was the first that had been seen. The temptation was too strong to be resisted. One man fired—he missed. Twenty guns were levelled at him. He fell—they forgot all discipline in their extremity, and shouted. It was a noble moose, weighing not less than 1000 pounds. A halt was ordered—camp kettles taken out, *fires kindled, meat, blood, entrails, hoofs and horns chopped up, and soup made of all for the army.*"

Revived by this unexpected supply, the troops pushed on. The next day they met a company of men with provisions, sent back by Arnold to relieve them. A loud shout arose from the whole army, and a general feast was ordered. Several of the soldiers, unable to restrain their appetites, eat so voraciously that they sickened and died. They had braved the wilderness, and withstood the ravages of famine, to fall victims to unrestrained indulgence. It was with profound sadness the young chaplain performed the last religious rites over their rude graves in the northern wilderness.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Area,	9,280 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	326,073
Population in 1870,	318,300

THE State of New Hampshire is bounded on the north by Canada East, on the east by Maine and the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by Massachusetts, and on the west by the Connecticut River and Vermont. It is 90 miles broad at its southern, and 45 miles broad at its northern extremity, and 185 miles long from north to south. It forms a species of irregular triangle, and is situated between latitude $42^{\circ} 40'$ and $45^{\circ} 25' N.$, and between longitude $70^{\circ} 40'$ and $72^{\circ} 35' W.$

TOPOGRAPHY.

The surface of the State is broken and mountainous. The country rises rapidly as it recedes from the coast until its greatest height is attained in Mount Washington, one of the White Mountains, in Coos county. The White Mountains proper are only about 20 miles long, and lie almost entirely in Coos county, but broken and detached groups lie all over the State from the northern boundary down to and across the Massachusetts border. The only level land, exclusive of the mountain valleys, extends along the coast, and for about 30 miles into the interior. The principal Peaks in New Hampshire which are distinct from the White Mountains, are as follows: the Blue Hills, 1151 feet above the ocean, situated in the southeast part of the State; Mount Chocura, in Carroll county, 3358 feet high; Carr's Mountain, in Grafton county, 1381 feet high; Mount Kearsarge, in Hillsborough county, 3067 feet; Mount Monadnock, in Cheshire county, 3718 feet; Mount Andover, in Merrimack county, 2000 feet; and Moosehillock, in Grafton county, 4636 feet.

The White Mountains lie in the southern part of Coos county, in the northeastern part of the State. The principal peaks of this range are Mount Washington, 6226 feet; Mount Jefferson, 5657 feet; Mount Adams, 5759 feet; Mount Madison, 5415; Mount Monroe, 5349; Mount Franklin, 4850 feet; and Mount Pleasant, 4712 feet. The prominent features of this region, which is styled, on account of its beauty, "The Switzerland of America," are thus sketched by a recent writer:

"The White Mountains, already referred to, attract more tourists than any other natural object in the United States, excepting only Niagara Falls. The traveller may journey for weeks through its wild scenery, with a constant succession of grand objects to interest his mind. | The fashionable route is to enter New Hampshire by the Boston and Montreal Railways to Wier's, on Lake Winnipiseogee; then take the steamboat, and, having made the circuit of the lake, enter the stage for Conway, on the east side of the White Mountains, and from thence, by another stage, through the celebrated Notch, to the Notch House, which stands in the very jaws of the pass. The return is by the Franconia Notch (about 26 miles southwest of the White Mountain Notch), and south down the valley of the Pemigewasset, to Plymouth, or back to Lake Winnipiseogee, according as the tourist wishes to direct his steps thereafter. The White Mountain Notch is a pass of great celebrity. Coming from the north or west, you enter it by an opening only 23 feet in width, between two perpendicular rocks, one 20, and the other 12 feet high. The infant Saco trickles its way through this narrow opening, gradually expanding as it proceeds down the pass, and receiving other tributaries from the mountain-sides, which form the walls of the gorge, and which tower to the height of about 2000 feet above the bed of the Saco. In this pass occurred, in 1826, the landslide which destroyed the Willey family. The more wild and abrupt parts of the Notch extend for 2 or 3 miles from its entrance at the Notch House. Mount Washington is ascended on horseback from the Notch House, by a bridle-path, first climbing Mount Clinton—in immediate proximity to the hotel—for $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and then coasting the east side of the peaks of Mount Pleasant, Mount Franklin, and Mount Monroe, for 4 miles further, occasionally ascending a rough, steep ridge, and again descending, now riding on the verge of a vast ravine of several hundred feet in depth, and now on the crest of a ridge commanding a view of both sides of the chain—we arrive at the foot of Mount Washington, 1500



SCENE IN THE WHITE MOUNTAINS.

feet in *perpendicular*, and about one mile in *inclined* ascent, above the base of the cone or peak, and 6226 feet above the sea. This is the most difficult, though scarcely dangerous, part of the ascent, as it is little else than riding on horseback over a pile of rocks of every variety of size, cast together as if hurled there by the Titans, in war or at play. From the summit, if the day be clear, is afforded a view unequalled, perhaps, on the eastern side of the North American continent. Around you, in every direction, are confused masses of mountains, bearing the appearance of a sea of molten lava suddenly cooled, whilst its ponderous waves were yet in commotion. On the southeast horizon gleams a rim of silver light—it is the Atlantic Ocean, 65 miles distant—laving the shores of Maine. Lakes—of all sizes, from Lake Winnipiseogee to mere mountain ponds—and ‘mountains beneath you gleam misty and *wide*.’ Far off to the northeast is Mount Katahdin. In the western horizon are the Green Mountains of Vermont, and to the south and southwest are Mount Monadnock and Kearsarge, or Kiarsage, while the space between is filled up with

every variety of landscape, mountain, and hill, plain and valley, lake and river.

“Those to whom it is an object to reach Mount Washington with as little stage-riding as possible, may be landed at Gorham by the Portland and Montreal Railway cars, within 5 miles of the base of the mountain. The Franconia Notch is deemed by many quite as interesting as the White Mountain Notch. Near it are many agreeable accessories not to be found in the latter; among which are Echo Lake, just at the northern entrance of the gorge, and the ‘Old Man of the Mountain,’ a well-defined profile of a human face, 1000 feet above the level of the pass. The Basin, 4 miles south of the Notch, is a pool of beautifully transparent water. One mile below this, again, in the vicinity of the Flume House, is the celebrated Flume, a narrow gorge or opening in the rocks, only a few feet in width, and from 70 to 120 feet in height, through which flows a small tributary of the Pemigewasset; below this is a cascade of 616 feet in length, which in the spring and fall freshets is an object of great interest. In the same neighborhood is the Pool (a basin formed by a small fall in the Pemigewasset), which is about 60 feet in diameter, and 40 feet deep, surrounded by mural precipices 150 feet in height. The Flume, the Basin, and the Pool, all within an agreeable walking distance of the Flume House, make this one of the most agreeable stopping-places among the mountains. Mount Lafayette—only 700 feet inferior in altitude to Mount Washington—is also ascended from the same house, which has the further advantage of being within a five-miles ride of the Franconia Notch. The other detached mountains scattered over New Hampshire would, in any other State, not overshadowed by Mount Washington and his court, merit conspicuous notice. Dixville Notch, about 46 miles north of Lancaster, is said to be but little inferior to the two great passes already described. New Hampshire shares with Vermont the beautiful river Connecticut, whose shores are often grand, and seldom tame. Bellows Falls, in this river, on the southwest border of the State, are formed by the contraction of the river bed to about 20 feet on the west side at low water, through which the stream rushes with great violence. At high water, it flows in the eastern as well as western channel. These beds are separated by a huge rock. The entire descent in half a mile is 42 feet. At Amoskeag, the Merrimac descends 50 feet in three successive pitches. In the White Mountain Notch is a cascade which winds down the face of the mountain, through a fall of 800 feet, giving, after copious

rairs, an additional interest to the scene, as it glides or leaps over the different stages of its descent. There are two interesting falls in the Ammonoosuck, within a pleasant drive from the Notch House." *

Lake Winnipiseogee is the principal inland sheet of water. It is irregular in shape, its shores being deeply indented with a number of bays. It is 25 miles long, and varies in width from 1 to 10 miles. It is very deep, and the water, pure and clear as crystal, is alive with fine trout. It is thickly studded with islands, and abounds in the most picturesque scenery. Steamers ply between Alton Bay and Centre Harbor, stopping at the various points along the lake. Large numbers of visitors come here every summer.

The Connecticut River, the largest and most beautiful in New England, rises in the extreme northern part of this State, in the hills lying along the border of Canada. Flowing across the State, it turns to the southwest at the northern line of Vermont, and pursuing a generally southwest course, forms the boundary between Vermont and New Hampshire, and passes into Massachusetts. The scenery along the river is very beautiful, and has made the "Connecticut Valley" famous throughout the country. Above the Massachusetts line it is chiefly mountainous.

The Merrimac River is the next in importance, and lies almost entirely within the State. It is formed by the junction of the Pemigewasset and Winnipiseogee rivers, in Belknap county. Flowing to the southward, it enters Massachusetts about 80 miles from its source. Then turning abruptly to the northeast, it flows into the Atlantic near Newburyport. It is about 110 miles long, and flows through a valley noted for its beauty. Haverhill, in Massachusetts, 15 miles from the sea, is the head of ship navigation, but canals have been cut around the falls, which enable boats to ascend to Concord, New Hampshire. The river turns by its excellent water-power more mills and factories than any other in the Union. The Salmon Falls, Piscataqua, Contoocook, Souhegan, and Nashua are the other prominent streams.

The Isle of Shoals is the name given to a group of 8 islands, 3 of which belong to New Hampshire, and the rest to Maine. They lie off the coast, 11 miles from Portsmouth. A steamer plies daily between that city and the principal island. "The voyage is but an hour in length, and the scenery, as the boat passes down the river

* Lippincott's Gazetteer, p. 1306.

through the Narrows, stemming bravely the rushing tide, or borne surfing upon it, is most delightful. Sliding by Fort Constitution and the Whale's Back Light House, the steamer is soon upon the wide Atlantic. Directly in front is the dim outline of the islands, while behind stretches the white line of the coast. In the distance rise the hills of New Hampshire and the blue sides of Agamenticus, the high mountain of York. As the boat approaches the Appledore Island, the hotel unfolds its size and proportions. Landing by row-boats, the traveller ascends, by an easy path, to the portico, where an expectant crowd is assembled.

"The 'Appledore' is conducted by Oscar and Cedric Loughton, whose father is well remembered as the former proprietor. His grave is now one of the interesting and noteworthy spots upon the rocky island. Here also are buried the unfortunate crew of a Spanish vessel driven upon the cliffs on a winter's night. This incident has been made the subject of an effective poem by Longfellow.

"The steamboat reaches the 'Appledore' at 1 o'clock each day, and starts upon its homeward trip at 3 P. M. Visitors to the other islands of the group are carried across in small boats. The distance is short to Gosport, where is a small village of some 30 houses, a church, and a school-house. The population are hardy fishermen, among whom can still be traced the Portuguese features of the original colonizers from the fleet of John Smith, by whom these islands were discovered. A disaster fell upon them a year ago, in the shape of fire. Half their little settlement was consumed in a single night; and this calamity, to so hard-working a people, excited much sympathy throughout New England. Assistance was given them, and they are now recovering from their losses.

"Near by is White Island, where a revolving light casts a crimson glow over a sea which sleeps through the summer months, but which rises in the winter storms with mighty strength. The other islands are known by the euphonious names of Smutty-Nose and Hog. They are visited only by sportsmen, and are a refuge for innumerable sea-fowl."

MINERALS.

Iron is found in several counties, principally at Franconia, Piermont, and Bartlett. Bog-ore deposits are thickly scattered over the State. Copper, lead, zinc and plumbago are also found in several localities, and silver has been discovered near Pittsfield. Granite of

a fine quality abounds. Gneiss, crystallized-quartz, talc, steatite, tourmalins, ochres, limestone, spars of various kinds, terra sienna, sulphur, magnesia, beryls, garnets, jasper, manganese, asbestos, and amethysts are found.

CLIMATE.

The climate of New Hampshire is severe, but uniform. Franconia is said to be the coldest place in the Union; the thermometer sometimes indicating 40 degrees below zero. The summers are short, but pleasant. The cold weather begins in October, and snow falls in November and lasts until May, in the northern part of the State, and until April in the southern. In the mountains it frequently lies on the ground until July. The springs are damp and are rendered disagreeable by heavy fogs.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The soil is not naturally fertile, but has been made so by patient and laborious tillage. The northern part is but little cultivated, and the best lands are in the valleys of the rivers, which occasionally enrich them by overflows. Sheep and cattle raising form a prominent part of the industry of the State, the high lands and mountain sides affording good pasturage.

There are about 2,367,034 acres of improved land in New Hampshire, and 1,377,591 acres unimproved. The remainder of the agricultural wealth of the State may be generally stated as follows:

Cash value of farms,	\$69,869,761
Value of farming implements and machinery, . .	\$2,682,412
Number of horses,	45,101
" asses and mules,	40
" milch cows,	99,540
" other cattle,	203,800
" sheep,	620,890
" swine,	79,680
Value of domestic animals,	\$12,924,629
Bushels of wheat,	291,000
" rye,	150,000
" Indian corn,	1,400,000
" oats,	1,663,000
" peas and beans,	89,454
" Irish potatoes,	4,500,000
" barley,	106,000
" buckwheat,	90,400

Bushels of clover seed (estimated),	13,000
“ grass seed (estimated),	6,500
Pounds of wool (estimated),	2,000,000
“ butter,	6,956,764
“ cheese,	2,323,092
“ hops,	150,000
“ maple sugar,	2,255,012
“ beeswax and honey,	130,078
Tons of hay,	700,000
Value of orchard products,	\$557,934
“ home-made manufactures,	\$251,013
“ slaughtered animals,	\$3,787,500

COMMERCE.

New Hampshire has but one good harbor, that of Portsmouth ; and but one river navigable, and that for but a short distance from the sea. This, of course, limits the amount of her foreign trade.

During the year ending June 30th, 1861, the commerce of the State was as follows : value of exports, \$6112 ; value of imports, \$20,887.

MANUFACTURES.

The rivers of New Hampshire furnish an abundance of first class water-power, and the people are largely engaged in manufactures. According to the census of 1870, there were 3342 establishments in the State engaged in manufactures, mining and the mechanic arts. They employed a capital of \$36,023,743 and 40,783 hands ; consumed raw material worth \$44,577,697 ; and yielded products worth \$71,038,249. Of these 35 were cotton factories, employing a capital of \$13,331,710, and 3751 male and 7490 female hands, consuming \$13,318,447 worth of raw material, paying \$398,853 annually for labor, and yielding an annual product of \$16,999,072 ; and 66 were woollen factories, employing a capital of \$4,598,800, and 1811 male and 1549 female hands, paying annually \$1,353,992 for labor, consuming raw material worth \$5,264,520, and yielding an annual product of \$8,703,307. The other manufactures were as follows : value of leather produced, \$3,758,236 ; rolled iron, \$455,000 ; steam engines and machinery, \$2,737,493 ; agricultural implements, \$254,470 ; sawed and planed lumber, \$4,786,692 ; flour, \$2,747,973 ; liquors, \$636,405.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In 1872, there were 790 miles of railroad within the limits of the State. These, in many instances, merely crossed it, terminating at

either Boston or Portland. Others had one terminus in New Hampshire, and another in some other State, and a few short routes lay within the State. The railroads have almost entirely supplanted the canals built for the improvement of the Merrimac River.

EDUCATION.

In the year 1870, there were 2542 public schools in New Hampshire, attended by 33,123 male, and 31,554 female pupils. These schools were conducted by 653 male, and 2702 female teachers. Besides these, there are about 50 private academies in the State, and one college, which is located at Dartmouth. This institution was founded in 1769, and is in a flourishing condition.

The educational system is maintained by sales of public lands, taxes upon the capital of the banks, and a poll tax upon the inhabitants. It is controlled by a series of district committees, who are subordinate to the Board of Education of the State. The expenditures for schools, not including the private schools, for the year 1870, was \$403,310.

In 1870, there were 1526 libraries in the State, containing 704,269 volumes.

In the same year, upwards of 50 newspapers were published in this State.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The Insane Asylum, at Concord, was incorporated in 1838. It is provided with excellent and commodious buildings, and has a farm of 155 acres attached to it. The whole number of patients under treatment during the year 1870 was 367—190 males, 177 females.

The Reform School is located near Manchester, and is surrounded by a farm of 100 acres, which is worked by the boys of the school. Children of both sexes are received here, and are subjected to a mild but firm course of discipline for their reformation. The school was founded in 1856, and has been very successful in its operations. During the year 1869–70, its inmates numbered 155—males 135, females 20.

The State Prison is located at Concord. It is in a flourishing condition, and is conducted upon a system which aims to reform as well as punish. The Legislature of 1867 passed an Act, known as the "Commutation law," by which, says the Governor of the Commonwealth, "every month of exemplary conduct on the part of a prisoner gains him a certain amount of time to be deducted from the term of

his sentence. . . . Every convict who avails himself of the benefits of this provision is released in advance of the expiration of his original term of imprisonment, and thus retains the rights of citizenship." During the year 1870, the whole number of prisoners confined here was 118.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, the value of church property was \$3,303,780. The number of churches was 624.

FINANCES.

The finances of the State are in a prosperous condition. In 1874, the total public debt was \$3,826,599. The receipts of the Treasury for the fiscal year ending June 30th, 1874, including cash on hand, were \$740,062, and the disbursements \$431,491, leaving a balance of \$308,571 in the Treasury on the 1st of July, 1874.

There are but few State banks left, nearly all of the old institutions having embraced the National Bank system. In May, 1868, there were a few remaining with an aggregate capital of \$237,300, and these were preparing to reorganize under the new system. At the same time, there were 40 National Banks, with an aggregate capital of \$4,785,000, besides a number of Savings institutions.

GOVERNMENT.

Every adult male inhabitant of the State, over twenty-one years of age, excepting paupers and persons not paying taxes, is entitled to vote in the place of his residence.

The Government consists of a Governor assisted by a Council of five members, and a Legislature, divided into a Senate and House of Representatives, all chosen annually by the people on the second Tuesday of March. The Secretary of State and Treasurer are chosen on joint ballot by the Legislature at the beginning of every session of that body. The two houses of the Legislature are together styled "The General Court of New Hampshire."

There is a *Supreme Judicial Court*, the highest State tribunal, comprised of a Chief Justice, and five Associate Justices. They are appointed by the Governor and Council, and hold office during good behavior. The State is divided, for convenience, into four Judicial Districts. There is also a Superior Court for each county, and a local tribunal for each city.

For purposes of government, the State is divided into ten counties. The seat of Government is located at Concord.

HISTORY.

New Hampshire was first settled by the English, at Dover and Portsmouth, in 1623. It was originally a part of Massachusetts, but was organized as a separate province, with its present name, by a royal charter, in 1679. In 1689, it was annexed to Massachusetts, and was afterwards transferred to New York. It was erected into an independent province in 1741, however, and has since maintained a distinct existence. It was considerably annoyed in its early years by the Indians, who, in 1689, made a descent upon Dover, burned a part of the town, and killed a number of the inhabitants. In 1776, the State declared its separate independence of Great Britain. During the Revolution, it made liberal contributions of men and money to the cause. Its troops won especial credit at Stillwater, Saratoga, Monmouth, and Bennington. It adopted the Constitution of the United States on the 21st of June, 1788. During the late war, it contributed 33,427 men to the army of the United States. Of these, 5518 fell in battle, and 11,039 were disabled by wounds and sickness.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

The principal cities and towns of New Hampshire are Concord, the capital of the State, Manchester, Nashua, Portsmouth, Dover, Somersworth, Keene, Claremont, Rochester, Exeter, Gilford, Sanbornton, and Great Falls.

CONCORD,

The capital of the State, is situated on the banks of the Merrimac River, 20 miles above Manchester, and 59 miles northwest from Boston. It extends along the river for about 2 miles, and has an average width of about half a mile. Main street, the principal thoroughfare, is 2 miles long, and 150 feet wide. It contains the hotels and nearly all the prominent buildings.

The city is handsomely built; the streets are broad, and well shaded; and the entire place wears an air of comfort and refinement characteristic of New England towns.

The principal building is the State House, constructed of a fine quality of native granite, and surrounded by a beautiful park.

Concord is the seat of extensive manufactures, the falls of the Mer-



CONCORD STATE HOUSE.

rimac furnishing excellent water-power. It contains 9 churches, several banks, and a number of fine private buildings. The State Lunatic Asylum is also located here. Railroads connect it with Boston and all parts of the Union, and with Canada. The population is 12,241. Four newspapers are published here.

MANCHESTER,

The largest city in the State, is situated in Hillsborough county, on the banks of the Merrimac River, 18 miles from Concord, and 59 miles from Boston. It is built along the river, on an elevated plateau, about 90 feet above the water. Several railroads centre here, and afford rapid and direct communication with all parts of the country. The city is well laid out, having broad streets, intersecting each other at right angles, and several handsome public squares. The eastern section is built almost entirely of brick, but the western part is built of wood. It contains several fine buildings, the principal of which is the new town house, or city hall. The more elevated portion of the place is occupied by residences and churches, and the slope between

the plateau and the river is devoted to the mills and the dwellings of the operatives. The city contains a good public library, about 12 churches, about 24 public schools, besides several private establishments, 3 or 4 banks, and 7 newspaper offices.

Manchester owes its importance to its extensive manufactures. Cotton, woollen, and other factories are numerous, the motive power being derived from a series of rapids in the Merrimac, called the Amoskeag Falls. The river here makes a descent of 54 feet in a mile, and dams and locks have been constructed at the head of the rapids, by which the water is conveyed to all the mills in the city.

Cotton and woollen goods, wrought iron goods of various kinds, locomotives, railroad cars, and steam fire-engines constitute the principal manufactures, and give employment to between six and seven thousand hands. The population is 23,536.

PORTSMOUTH,

In Rockingham county, is the second city, and only seaport in the State. It is situated on the right bank of the Piscataqua River, 3 miles from the sea, and 54 miles northeast of Boston. Several railroads terminate here, and others pass through it, leading to all parts of the Union and Canada.

The city is built upon a peninsula near the mouth of the river, and upon rising ground, which affords a fine view of the harbor. It is well laid off, and possesses a number of handsome buildings. It contains a public library of over 10,000 volumes, and several excellent literary institutions. It is extensively engaged in manufactures, is supplied with water, and is lighted with gas.

It is the seat of an active foreign and coasting trade, which, though not so large as formerly, is still important. The fisheries are a source of considerable profit to it, as they lie but a short distance from it.

The harbor of Portsmouth is one of the best in the world. It is completely land-locked, is never frozen, and is accessible to the largest ships. Its tides are high and rapid, and the bottom is a smooth bed of rock. The channel at low water is 40 feet in depth. It is defended by Fort Constitution, on Great Island; Fort McClary, opposite; Fort Sullivan, on Trepethen Island; and Fort Washington, on Pierce's Island. It is estimated that the harbor is sufficiently capacious to admit with ease as many as 2000 vessels.

The city is connected by bridges with Newcastle, on Grand Island, and with Kittery, in Maine, on the opposite side of the Piscataqua.

The United States Navy Yard at Kittery, commonly known as the Portsmouth Navy Yard, is one of the principal establishments of the Government, and the greatest attraction of the place. It is provided with a splendid dry dock, constructed at a cost of \$800,000, with three large ship-houses, and all the appliances necessary to the construction of the largest vessels of war. Portsmouth was made a naval station during the Revolution, and the first ship of the line (the *North America*) ever constructed in the New World was laid down here during that struggle. The *Kearsarge*, which sunk the *Alabama* during the civil war, was built here.

Portsmouth contains numerous public schools, and supports 4 newspapers, 2 of which are daily. The *New Hampshire Gazette*, published here, was established in 1756, and claims to be the oldest American journal now in existence. The population is 11,000.

DOVER,

In Strafford county, is the oldest city in the State. It is situated at the lower falls of the Cocheco River, and on both sides of that stream. It is at the head of sloop navigation, and is connected with all parts of the country by railroad. It is 12 miles northwest of Portsmouth, and 68 miles north of Boston. It is well built, and regularly laid off. It contains several handsome buildings, the principal of which is the city hall, several banks, a number of excellent public schools, 10 churches, and 2 good hotels.

The falls of the Cocheco are 32 feet high, and furnish an abundance of excellent water-power. The capital invested in manufactures amounts to several millions of dollars. Cotton and woollen goods, boots and shoes, and iron ware are the principal articles produced. Shipbuilding was formerly an important interest. The city is lighted with gas, and contains a population of over 10,000.

Dover was settled by a company from England, in 1623, and its early years were marked by constant trouble with the savages. In 1688, it was almost entirely destroyed by them. Belknap, in his "History of New Hampshire," gives the following account of this tragedy:

In that part of the town of Dover which lies about the first falls in the river Cocheco, were five garrisoned houses; three on the north side, viz., Waldron's, Otis's and Heard's; and two on the south side, viz., Peter Coffin's and his son's. These houses were surrounded by timber walls, the gates of which, as well as the house doors, were secured with bolts and bars. The neighboring families retired

to these houses by night; but, by an unaccountable negligence, no watch was kept. The Indians who were daily passing through the town, visiting and trading with the inhabitants, as usual in time of peace, viewed their situation with an attentive eye. Some hints of a mischievous design had been given out by their squaws; but in such dark and ambiguous terms that no one could comprehend their meaning. Some of the people were uneasy; but Waldron, who, from a long course of experience, was intimately acquainted with the Indians, and on other occasions had been ready enough to suspect them, was now so thoroughly secure that, when some of the people hinted their fears to him, he merrily bade them go and plant their pumpkins, saying that he would tell them when the Indians would break out. The very evening before the mischief was done, being told by a young man that the town was full of Indians and the people were much concerned, he answered that he knew the Indians very well and there was no danger.

The plan which the Indians had preconcerted was, that two squaws should go to each of the garrisoned houses in the evening, and ask leave to lodge by the fire; that in the night, when the people were asleep, they should open the doors and gates, and give the signal by a whistle; upon which the strange Indians, who were to be within hearing, should rush in, and take their long-meditated revenge. This plan being ripe for execution, on the evening of Thursday, the 27th of June, two squaws applied to each of the garrisons for lodging, as they frequently did in time of peace. They were admitted into all but the younger Coffin's, and the people, at their request, showed them how to open the doors, in case they should have occasion to go out in the night. Mesandowit, one of their chiefs, went to Waldron's garrison, and was kindly entertained, as he had often been before. The squaws told the major that a number of Indians were coming to trade with him the next day, and Mesandowit while at supper, with his usual familiarity, said: "Brother Waldron, what would you do if the strange Indians should come?" The major carelessly answered, that he could assemble 100 men by lifting up his finger. In this unsuspecting confidence the family retired to rest.

When all was quiet, the gates were opened and the signal given. The Indians entered, set a guard at the door, and rushed into the major's apartment, which was an inner room. Awakened by the noise, he jumped out of bed, and though now advanced in life to the age of 80 years, he retained so much vigor as to drive them with his sword through two or three doors; but, as he was returning for his other arms, they came behind him, stunned him with a hatchet, drew him into his hall, and, seating him in an elbow chair on a long table, insultingly asked him, "Who shall judge Indians now?" They then obliged the people in the house to get them some victuals; and when they had done eating, they cut the major across the breast and belly with knives, each one with a stroke, saying, "I cross out my account." They then cut off his nose and ears, forcing them into his mouth; and when spent with the loss of blood, he was falling down from the table, one of them held his own sword under him, which put an end to his misery. They also killed his son-in-law, Abraham Lee; but took his daughter Lee with several others, and having pillaged the house, left it on fire. Otis's garrison, which was next to the major's, met with the same fate; he was killed, with several others, and his wife and child were captivated. Heard's was saved by the barking of a dog just as the Indians were entering: Elder Wentworth, who was awakened by the noise, pushed them out, and falling on his back set

his feet against the gate and held it till he had alarmed the people ; two balls were fired through it, but both missed him. Coffin's house was surprised, but as the Indians had no particular enmity to him, they spared his life, and the lives of his family, and contented themselves with pillaging the house. Finding a bag of money, they made him throw it by handfuls on the floor, while they amused themselves in scrambling for it. They then went to the house of his son, who would not admit the squaws in the evening, and summoned him to surrender, promising him quarter. He declined their offer, and determined to defend his house, till they brought out his father and threatened to kill him before his eyes. Filial affection then overcame his resolution, and he surrendered. They put both families together into a deserted house, intending to reserve them for prisoners ; but while the Indians were busy in plundering, they all escaped.

Twenty-three people were killed in this suprisal, and 29 were captivated ; 5 or 6 houses, with the mills, were burned ; and so expeditious were the Indians in the execution of their plot, that before the people could be collected from the other parts of the town to oppose them, they fled with their prisoners and booty. As they passed by Heard's garrison in their retreat, they fired upon it ; but the people being prepared and resolved to defend it, and the enemy being in haste, it was preserved. The preservation of its owner was more remarkable.

Elizabeth Heard, with her three sons and a daughter, and some others, were returning in the night from Portsmouth. They passed up the river in their boat unperceived by the Indians, who were then in possession of the houses ; but suspecting danger by the noise which they heard, after they had landed, they betook themselves to Waldron's garrison, where they saw lights, which they imagined were set up for direction to those who might be seeking a refuge. They knocked and begged earnestly for admission ; but no answer being given, a young man of the company climbed up the wall, and saw, to his inexpressible surprise, an Indian standing in the door of the house, with his gun. The woman was so overcome with the fright that she was unable to fly, but begged her children to shift for themselves ; and they with heavy hearts left her. When she had a little recovered, she crawled into some bushes, and lay there till daylight. She then perceived an Indian coming toward her with a pistol in his hand ; he looked at her and went away : returning, he looked at her again ; and she asked him what he would have ; he made no answer, but ran yelling to the house, and she saw him no more. She kept her place till the house was burned, and the Indians were gone ; and then returning home, found her own house safe. Her preservation in these dangerous circumstances was more remarkable, if (as it is supposed) it was an instance of justice and gratitude in the Indians. For at the time when the four or five hundred were seized, in 1676, a young Indian escaped and took refuge in her house, where she concealed him ; in return for which kindness he promised her that he would never kill her, nor any of her family, in any future war, and that he would use his influence with the other Indians to the same purpose. This Indian was one of the party who surprised the place, and she was well known to the most of them.

VERMONT.

Area,	10,212 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	315,098
Population in 1870,	330,552

THE State of Vermont lies between latitude $42^{\circ} 44'$ and 45° N., and longitude $71^{\circ} 33'$ and $73^{\circ} 25'$ W., and is bounded on the north by Canada East, on the east by New Hampshire, on the south by Massachusetts, and on the west by Lake Champlain and the State of New York. It is 150 miles long from north to south, 85 miles wide from east to west in its northern part, and 35 miles wide from east to west at its southern boundary.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The surface of the State is greatly diversified by hill and valley. The Green Mountains extend in a direction almost from north to south, throughout its entire length, dividing it into two unequal portions. Just below Montpelier, the capital, this ridge divides into two portions, one of which, the higher, extends in a northern direction to the Canada line. The other, although lower, is continuous, and follows the line of the Connecticut River, though at a considerable distance from it, to the northeast corner of the State. The eastern ridge is broken in several places by the passage of the Onion, Lamoille, and Missisque rivers. South of this division, the range is not broken by any stream. The Green Mountains are among the most picturesque and beautiful in the Union, and offer many attractions to the tourist. The highest peaks are Mount Mansfield, 4360 feet above the sea, Camel's Rump, 4188 feet, Killington's, 3675 feet, and Ascutney Mountain, near the Connecticut River, 3320 feet. The southern part of the range divides the tributaries of the Hudson from those of the Con-

necticut. The mountains are covered with a thick growth of the evergreen fir, spruce, and hemlock, which give them always a rich hue of dark green, from which their name is derived.

Lake Champlain, the largest over which the State has any jurisdiction, lies between Vermont and New York, and belongs principally to the latter State; but, for convenience, will be described here. It extends from Whitehall, in New York, northward, a few miles beyond the Canada line. It is 130 miles long, varies in width from half a mile to 10 miles, and is from 50 to 280 feet deep. A line, run from Vermont to New York across the principal island of the lake, would measure 15 miles. It receives the waters of Lakes George and Wood, and of the Saranac, Chazy, Au Sable, Missisquoi, and Winooski rivers, and discharges itself through the Richelieu River into the St. Lawrence. On the New York side the shores are rocky, mountainous and sterile; but the Vermont shore is very productive, and is highly cultivated. The scenery of the lake is wild and beautiful, the view ranging, in fair weather, as far back as the Green Mountains in Vermont, and the Adirondacks in New York. The waters are clear and abound in fish. Steamers ply daily between the upper and lower ends of the lake. By means of canals there is uninterrupted navigation, except during the season of ice, between Lake Champlain and the Atlantic, Lake Ontario, and the Hudson River. The commerce of the lake is estimated at over \$30,000,000 annually. About 200,000 tons of shipping and 12,000 men are employed in this trade. Navigation is usually closed between the last of November and the first of April.

There are a number of islands in the lake, the principal of which are Grand Isle, South Hero, and North Hero, all belonging to Vermont. The principal towns belonging to Vermont are Swanton, Burlington, Charlotte, and Ferrisburg.

Lake Champlain was discovered by Samuel Champlain, a French naval officer, in 1609. Important events occurred on its waters during the Revolution, and in the war of 1812-15, a British army and fleet were routed at Plattsburg, on the New York shore.

Lake Memphramagog, which lies almost entirely in Canada, indents a portion of northern Vermont. The other lakes are Dunmore, Austin, Bombazine, and Long Pond.

The Connecticut River separates the State from New Hampshire. The other streams are the Otter Creek, Onion, Lamoille, and Missisquoi. They are insignificant in length, but furnish good water-power.

MINERALS.

Iron is found in considerable quantities in the Green Mountains, and there are deposits of bog-ore in various parts of the State. A brownish coal is found in Brandon. Sulphuret of iron is found near Strafford, and is used in making copperas, of which large quantities are produced. Granite and marble, the latter of a most excellent quality, abound. Slate quarries are numerous, and manganese is found in considerable quantities near Rutland: The other minerals are titanium, oxide of manganese, lead, magnetic iron ore, plumbago, copper and zinc. Traces of gold are very decided in the towns of Stowe and Bridgewater.

CLIMATE.

Being sheltered from the breezes which sweep over the other New England States from the ice fields of the Atlantic, Vermont has an even temperature, which renders it one of the healthiest States in the Union. The thermometer ranges from 17° below zero to 92° above. The winters begin about December, and continue until near the middle of April. They are severe, as well as long. The summers are brief, but pleasant. Frost begins to appear in September, snow about the last of November.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The valleys of Vermont are fertile, the lands along the river bottoms being excellent. The mountain slopes are used extensively for pasture, and large quantities of maple sugar are produced every year in the uplands.

In 1869, there were 2,823,157 acres of improved land in the State, and 1,337,682 of unimproved land.

The remainder of the agricultural wealth of Vermont, at the present time, may be stated as follows:

Cash value of farms,	\$91,511,673
Value of farming implements and machinery, . .	\$3,554,728
Number of horses,	71,840
“ asses and mules,	120
“ milch cows,	190,420
“ other cattle,	230,300
“ sheep,	997,890
“ swine,	81,450
Value of domestic animals,	\$19,241,989

Bushels of	wheat,	766,000
"	rye,	155,000
"	Indian corn,	1,475,000
"	oats,	5,050,000
"	Irish potatoes,	5,750,000
"	barley,	102,000
"	buckwheat,	231,000
"	grass seed,	12,000
Pounds of	wool,	3,000,000
"	butter,	15,900,359
"	cheese, ;	8,215,030
"	maple sugar (estimated),	10,000,000
"	beeswax and honey (estimated),	212,905
Tons of	hay (estimated),	1,100,000
Value of	orchard products (estimated),	\$198,427
"	market garden products (estimated),	\$24,792
"	home-made manufactures, "	\$63,295

COMMERCE.

Being an inland State without navigable rivers, Vermont conducts its commerce connected with navigation exclusively by way of Lake Champlain. During the year 1862, the foreign exports amounted to \$736,663, and the imports to \$2,567,892. The entrances for the same year reached 22,012 tons, and the clearances to 23,281. Of this amount, 6067 tons were owned in the State.

MANUFACTURES.

Vermont has the best water-power of any New England State, but is not as extensively engaged in manufactures as the others, the principal pursuit of her people being agriculture. According to the census of 1870, there were 3270 establishments in Vermont devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts. These employed a capital of \$20,329,637, and 18,686 hands, consumed raw material worth \$17,007,769, and returned an annual product of \$32,184,606. The cotton manufactures were valued at \$546,510; woollen manufactures at \$3,550,962; leather manufactures at \$2,052,913; pig iron at \$66,000; rolled iron at \$31,500; steam engines and machinery at \$1,122,567; agricultural implements at \$523,669; sawed and planed lumber at \$6,069,725; flour at \$3,895,058.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

Vermont is crossed by several lines of railway, connecting the principal towns with the cities of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, New

York, Connecticut, and Canada. In 1872, there were 675 miles of railway completed in the State. Rutland is the great railroad centre.

EDUCATION.

The State makes a liberal provision for the education of the young. In 1870, there were 2750 public or district schools in operation, attended by 72,950 pupils, the average attendance being about 47,000. The number of teachers was 4239, and the amount spent for educational purposes was about \$425,000. There are also three Normal schools in the State, one in each Congressional district, subject to the control of the State Board of Education. Two courses of study are taught in these schools. Those who graduate in the first course receive a certificate, which is, by a law of the State, a licence to teach anywhere in Vermont for five years. Graduates from the second course receive certificates licensing them to teach in the State for fifteen years.

Besides the public schools, there were, in the year 1867, 348 private schools, attended by 9264 pupils, and 58 academies.

The colleges are 3 in number, the University of Vermont, at Burlington, founded in 1791, Middlebury College, at Middlebury, founded in 1800, and Norwich University (partly military in its organization), founded in 1834.

There were, in 1870, 47 newspapers published in the State, 3 daily, 43 weekly, and one monthly.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The public institutions of Vermont are the Insane Asylum, the Reform School, and the State Prison.

The Insane Asylum is located at Brattleboro'. It is surrounded by a large farm, and has ample buildings, which were burned in 1862, but are now being replaced. It is under the supervision of the Commissioner of the Insane, who is appointed by the Legislature annually for the purpose of inspecting and reporting upon the affairs of the asylum. In 1867, there were 646 inmates of the asylum. The institution is in a large measure sustained by the labor of its inmates.

The Reform School, established in 1865, is located at Waterbury. It has a farm of 133 acres attached to it, and is provided with excellent workshops. It is in a flourishing condition. In September, 1868, there were 57 inmates remaining.

The State Prison was established in 1807, and is located at Windsor. It is governed by a Board consisting of a Superintendent and three Directors, chosen annually by the Legislature. It is almost self-supporting. The labor of the convicts is let, by agreement, at 42 cents per head, per day, for a term of five years. The commutation system has been introduced with great success. In September, 1870, there were 94 convicts still in prison.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, the value of church property in Vermont was \$3,713,530. The number of churches was 744.

FINANCES.

The funded debt of the State in 1874 was about \$450,000. A balance is still due the State by the General Government on account of the war. The receipts of the Treasury for the fiscal year ending in July, 1874, were \$460,380, and the expenditures were \$397,188.

In September, 1868, there were 40 National banks in Vermont, with an aggregate capital of \$6,560,012.

GOVERNMENT.

Every male adult, either a native born or naturalized citizen of the United States, who has resided in the State one year, and can take the oath prescribed by the Constitution of Vermont, is entitled to vote in the State elections.

The Government consists of a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, who is the President of the Senate, and a Legislature consisting of a Senate and House of Representatives, chosen annually by the people. The Senate consists of 30 and the House of 241 members. There is also a Secretary of State, a State Treasurer, and an Auditor of Accounts.

The judiciary department of the Government consists of a Supreme Court, a Court of Chancery, a County Court in each county, a Probate Court in each probate district, and one or more justices of the peace in each town.

"The Supreme Court has no original jurisdiction, except for divorce; but is a court of errors for the trial of questions at law, and a court of appeal in chancery suits. Each judge of the Supreme Court is a Chancellor, and holds his court at the same time as the County Court,

which is held in each county by one of the Supreme Judges and two Assistant Judges. The County Courts have original jurisdiction in all civil actions for over \$200, or in relation to real estate, except trespass, where the damages claimed exceed \$20; also in actions for replevin for amounts over \$20. All actions out of the original jurisdiction of the County and Chancery Courts, except for divorce, must be brought before a justice of the peace."

The Supreme Court consists of one Chief Judge and five Assistant Judges.

For the purposes of government, the State is divided into 14 counties. The seat of Government is established at Montpelier.

HISTORY.

Vermont was first discovered and partly explored by Samuel Champlain, a French officer, in 1609. It was first settled by the English, who founded Fort Dummer, on the present site of Brattleboro', in 1724. The territory was then believed to be a part of Massachusetts. By the year 1768, 138 townships had been settled. These settlements were made under the authority of the Governor of New Hampshire, who claimed the territory as a part of his province by virtue of the original charter of New Hampshire. In 1763, a controversy arose between New York and New Hampshire, the former laying claim to the territory. An appeal was made to the king, in 1764, who granted to New York jurisdiction to the Connecticut River. New Hampshire acquiesced in this decision, and the authorities of New York "attempted to eject and dispossess the settlers from their lands, and through venal judges decided every case against them. This roused the spirit of the settlers to such a degree, that they commenced, under the leadership of Ethan Allen, Seth Warner, and other bold and fearless men, an armed resistance to the oppression of the New York Government; every officer who undertook to enforce a process of ejection was stripped, tied to a tree, and whipped with beechen rods without mercy. This application of the 'beech seal,' as it was called, was so effectual that no officers could be procured to serve writs." The contest went on for ten years. Finally the Governor of New York issued a proclamation offering a reward for the capture of the Vermont leaders, who retorted by offering a reward for the capture of the Attorney General of New York. The Revolution began at this juncture, and suspended the controversy. The Vermont leaders did good service in the cause of the Colonies. Allen, with his own

company of 83 men, surprised and captured the important post of Ticonderoga, in May, 1775. In the invasion of Canada, he behaved gallantly and was made prisoner, while the Vermont regiment, under Seth Warner, covered the retreat from Quebec, and compelled the surrender of the enemy's garrison at St. John's. The "Green Mountain Boys" made a brilliant name during the war, especially in the battles on Lake Champlain, in which nothing but their heroic resistance saved the American force from total annihilation. Their victory at Bennington decided the fate of Burgoyne's army.

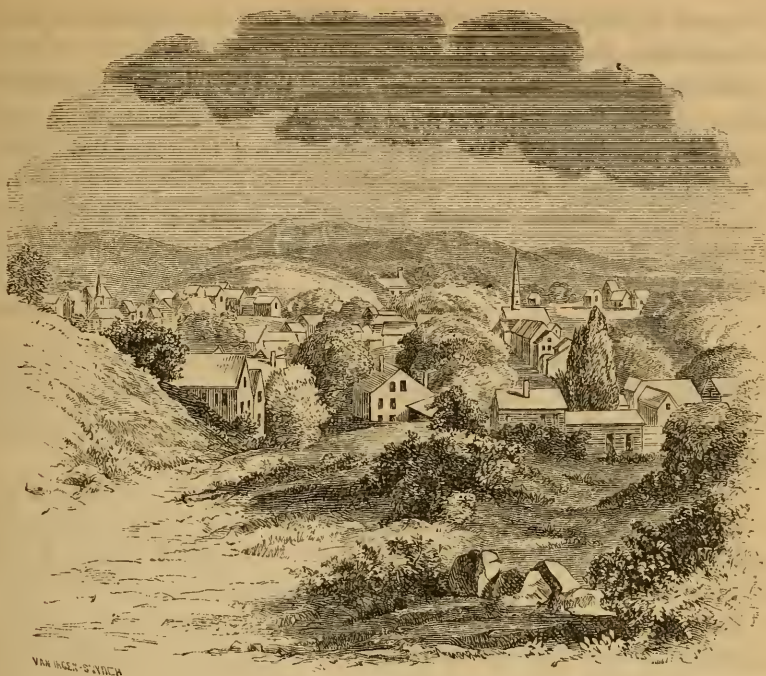
In 1776, Vermont petitioned the Continental Congress for admission into the Confederacy of the States, but her petition was rejected at the instance of New York. The next year, Vermont declared her independence, and in July made a second effort to secure admission into the Confederacy. Congress evaded a direct reply. The British now made strong overtures to Vermont to renew her allegiance to the Crown, but the Green Mountain leaders put the royal agents off with a vague reply, which was meant to encourage them to an extent sufficient to save the province from invasion by them till the answer of Congress should be known.

In 1781, Congress offered to admit Vermont if she would consent to a curtailment of her territory, but she refused the offer. For eight years, she continued to occupy her anomalous position. In 1790, New York, wishing to settle the old dispute with her, revived her claim to the territory, but offered to compromise it on payment of \$30,000. The offer was finally accepted, and the long difficulty settled. On the 4th of March, 1791, Vermont was admitted into the Union as a State—making the fourteenth member of the Confederacy, and the first admitted under the Constitution.

In 1814, the State contributed a portion of the army which won the battle of Plattsburg.

In 1837, during the Canadian Rebellion, considerable sympathy was shown for the rebels by the people of Vermont, and some 600 men went into Canada, to take part in the struggle. Upon the approach of a British force sent against them, they withdrew into their own State and surrendered their arms to the United States authorities.

During the late war, on the 19th of October, 1863, a descent was made upon the town of St. Albans by a party of Confederates from Canada, who seized the funds in the bank, amounting to \$211,150, and committed some depredations upon the town. They were pursued by the citizens, and the whole party finally captured by the pursuers or by the Canadian authorities.



MONTPELIER.

The State contributed to the army of the Union, during the war, a force amounting to 34,655 men. Of these 5128 were killed, a similar number were discharged, and others were permanently disabled.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

The principal towns and cities of the State are Montpelier, the capital, Burlington, Brattleboro', Rutland, St. Albans, and Bennington.

MONTPELIER,

The capital of Vermont, is delightfully situated on the banks of the Onion River, near the centre of the State, about 200 miles northwest of Boston. It is a pretty little city, well built, and conducts an active and valuable trade with the surrounding country. It is on the main line of travel between Boston and Montreal, in Canada, and is thus immediately connected with the great railroad system of the country.

It became the capital of the State in 1805, and now contains a population of over 3000.

The State House fronts on State street, and is a splendid edifice of native granite. It is in the form of a cross, has a fine portico supported by massive columns, and is surmounted by a dome the apex of which is 100 feet from the ground.

Montpelier contains several flourishing schools, 2 banks, and 5 churches. Six newspapers are published here.

BURLINGTON,

In Chittenden county, is the largest city in the State. It is situated on the east shore of Lake Champlain, 40 miles northwest of Montpelier, and about midway down the lake. The surrounding country abounds in magnificent scenery.

"Splendor of landscape," says Dr. Dwight, "is the peculiar boast of Burlington. Lake Champlain, here 16 miles wide, extends 50 miles northward, and 40 southward, before it reaches Crown Point, and throughout a great part of this magnificent expansion is visible at Burlington. In its bosom are encircled many beautiful islands; 3 of them, North and South Hero, and La Motte, sufficiently large to contain, the first and last, 1 township each, the other 2; forming, together with the township of Alburgh, on the point between the bay of Miscisconi and the river St. John, the county of Grand Isle. A numerous train of these islands is here in full view. In the interior, among the other interesting objects, the range of the Green Mountains, with its train of lofty summits, commences in the south with the utmost stretch of the eye; and limiting, on the east, one-third of the horizon, declines far northward, until it becomes apparently blended with the surface. On the west, beyond the immense field of glass, formed by the waters of the lake, extends the opposite shore from its first appearance at the south, until it vanishes from the eye in the northwest, at the distance of 40 miles. Twelve or 15 miles from this shore ascends the first range of western mountains; about 15 or 20 miles further, the second range; and at about the same distance the third. The two former commence a few miles south of the head of Lake George; one on the eastern, and the other on the western side of this water. Where the third commences, I am ignorant. The termination of all these ranges is not far from the latitude of Plattsburg. The prospect of these mountains is superlatively noble. The rise of the first range from the lake, the ascent of the second far above

it, and the still loftier elevation of the third, diffuse a magnificence over the whole, which mocks description. Three of the summits, hitherto without a name, are peculiarly distinguished for their sublimity. Among those of the Green Mountains there are two, in the fullest view from this spot, superior even to these. One of them, named the Camel's Rump, the Camel's Back, and the Camel; the other the Mountain of Mansfield. The latter of these was by the following expedient proved, not long since, to be higher than the former. A hunter, who had ascended to its highest point, put into his piece a small ball; and pointing it to the apex of the Camel, the ball rolled out. Both of them are, however, very lofty; higher, as I believe, than Killington Peak, notwithstanding the deference with which I regard the estimates of Doctor Williams. The peculiar form of the Camel's Back invests this mountain with a sublimity entirely superior to any other in the State."

The city is built on rising ground, which becomes more elevated as it recedes from the lake, being quite low immediately at the water. The harbor has been deepened and enlarged by the General Government, and a breakwater constructed for its protection. Two railroads centre here, and afford direct communication with Montreal, Boston, New York City, and Albany. An important trade is carried on upon the lake. About 7000 tons of shipping and several steamers are owned here.

The city is regularly laid off, and handsomely built. The streets intersect each other at right angles, extend back from the lake for more than a mile, and are well shaded. A handsome public square occupies the centre of the city, and upon this front the court house, the principal hotels, and the most prominent stores. Nearly all the houses have tasteful yards attached to them. Many have extensive grounds, planted with handsome shrubbery. The city contains 4 banks, a number of churches, and 3 newspaper offices. The population is about 14387.

The *University of Vermont* occupies a commanding eminence at the eastern end of the city. It was founded in 1791, and is liberally endowed. It occupies four spacious and handsome buildings, and from the dome of the central edifice a view of unsurpassed beauty may be obtained.

RUTLAND,

In Rutland county, in the southwest part of the State, is the second city in Vermont. It is situated on Otter Creek, 55 miles southwest



RUTLAND.

of Montpelier, and 67 miles southeast of Burlington. It is an important railroad centre, four lines converging here, and leading to all parts of the country. It is beautifully situated in the midst of a picturesque region, Killington Peak forming the leading feature of the landscape. The city is well laid out, and neatly built. It contains several churches, a number of schools, public and private, 2 banks, and 3 newspaper offices. It possesses an important trade with the surrounding country, and contains several manufacturing establishments. The population is 9834. Rutland is growing with marked rapidity, and will soon be one of the most important cities in New England.

BENNINGTON,

In the county of the same name, in the extreme southwest part of the State, is a thriving town of 2500 inhabitants.

It is famous as being the scene of the battle of Bennington, fought August 16th, 1777, when a detachment of Burgoyne's army, under

Colonel Baume, was terribly beaten by the "Green Mountain Boys," led by General Stark. The following account of the engagement is taken from a popular publication :

John Stark, the hero of Bennington, was a native of New Hampshire. At an early age he enlisted in a company of rangers, participated in several conflicts with the savages, and at last fell into their hands, a prisoner of war. Redeemed by his friends for \$103, he joined Rogers' rangers, and served with distinction through the French and Indian difficulty. When the news came to his quiet home, that American blood had been spilt upon the green at Lexington, he rallied his countrymen, and hurried on to Boston with 800 brave mountaineers. He presented himself before the American commander on the eve of the battle of Bunker Hill, and receiving a colonel's commission, instantly hurried to the intrenchments.

Throughout the battle of Bunker Hill, Stark and his New Hampshire men nobly sustained the honor of the patriot cause, and no troops exceeded in bravery the militia regiment of Colonel John Stark. In the spring of 1776, he went to Canada, and at the battle of Trenton he commanded the right wing of Washington's army. He was at Princeton, Bennington, and several other severe battles, always sustaining his reputation, as a brave, honorable, sterling patriot, and an able general. He was a great favorite of General Washington, and very popular in the army. On the 8th of May, 1822, aged 93 years, he "was gathered to his fathers," and his remains repose upon the banks of the beautiful Merrimac, beneath a monument of granite, which bears the inscription—"MAJOR-GENERAL STARK."

Having given a very brief sketch of the celebrated officer who led our patriot militia upon the field of Bennington, we will proceed with the account of that battle.

The magnificent army of General Burgoyne, which invaded the States in 1777, having become straitened for provisions and stores, the royal commander ordered a halt, and sent Colonel Baume, a Hessian officer, to scour the country for supplies. Baume took a strong force of British infantry, two pieces of artillery, and a squadron of heavy German dragoons. A great body of Indians, hired and armed by the British, followed his force, or acted as scouts and flanking parties.

Stark, on the intelligence of Burgoyne's invasion, was offered the command of one of two regiments of troops which were raised in New Hampshire, through the exertions, chiefly, of John Langdon, Speaker of the General Assembly. Stark had served for a long period as General, but at that time was at home, a private citizen. But at the call of his countrymen he again took the field. The two regiments were soon raised, and with them, as senior officer, Stark hastened to oppose the British army. At that time the Vermont militia were enrolled into an organization, called the "Berkshire Regiment," under Colonel Warner.

On arriving near Bennington, Stark sent forward Colonel Gregg, with a small force to reconnoitre, but that officer soon returned with the information that a strong force of British, Hessians and Indians was rapidly approaching. Upon this intelligence, Stark resolved to stand his ground and give battle. Messengers were sent at once to the Berkshire militia to hurry on, and the patriots were directed to see that their weapons were in good order. This was on the 14th of August, 1777. During the day, Baume and his army appeared, and learning that the militia were collecting in front of his route, the commander ordered his

army to halt, and throw up intrenchments. An express was also sent to General Burgoyne for reinforcements.

The 15th was dull and rainy. Both armies continued their preparations, while waiting for reinforcements. Skirmishing was kept up all day and night, between the militia and the Indians, and the latter suffered so severely, that a great portion of the savage force left the field, saying that "the woods were full of Yankees." About 12 o'clock on the night of the 15th, a party of Berkshire militia came into the American camp. At the head of one company, was the Reverend Mr. Allen, of Pittsfield, and that worthy gentleman appeared full of zeal to meet the enemy. Sometime before daylight, he called on General Stark, and said: "General, the people of Berkshire county have often been called out, without being allowed to fight, and if you don't give them a chance, they have resolved never to turn out again." "Very well," replied Stark, "do you want to go at it now, while it is dark and rainy?" "No, not just at this moment," said the warlike minister. "Then," said the General, "if the Lord shall once more give us sunshine, and I do not give you fighting enough, I'll never ask you to come out again!" This satisfied the preacher, and he went out to cheer up his flock with the good news.

Day dawned, bright and warm, on the 16th. All nature, invigorated by the mild August rain, glared with beauty and freshness. Before sunrise, the Americans were in motion, while from the British intrenchments, the sound of bugles and the roll of drums, told that Baume's forces were ready for action. Stark early arranged his plan of attack. Colonel Nichols, with 300 men, was sent out to attack the British rear; Colonel Herrick, with 300 men, marched against the right flank, but was ordered to join Nichols before making his assault general. With about 300 men, Colonels Hubbard and Stickney were sent against the entrenched front, while Stark, with a small reserve, waited to operate whenever occasion offered. It must be remembered that the American forces were *militia*, while Baume's army was made up of well-disciplined, well-armed, and experienced soldiers. Many of the patriots were armed with fowling-pieces, and there were whole companies without a bayonet. They had no artillery.

General Stark waited impatiently until the roar of musketry proclaimed that the different detachments had commenced their attack, and then forming his small battalion, he made his memorable speech: "*Boys! there's the enemy, and we must beat them, or Molly Stark sleeps a widow to-night—Forward!*" His soldiers, with enthusiastic shouts, rushed forward upon the Hessian defences, and the battle became general. The Hessian dragoons, dismounted, met the Americans with stern bravery. The two cannons, loaded with grape and canister, swept the hill side with dreadful effect.

Stark's white horse fell in less than ten minutes after his gallant rider came under fire, but on foot, with his hat in one hand, and his sabre in the other, he kept at the head of his men, who, without flinching a single foot, urged their way up the little hill. Brave Parson Allen, with a clubbed musket, was seen amid the smoke, fighting in the front platoon of his company. The whole field was a volcano of fire. Stark, in his official report, says that the two forces were within a few yards of each other, and "the roaring of their guns was like a continuous clap of thunder!" The Hessian and British regulars, accustomed to hard-fought fields, held their ground stubbornly and bravely. For more than two hours the battle hung in even scale. At length, Baume ordered a charge; at that instant he fell, mortally wounded, and his men charging forward, broke their ranks in

such a manner, that the Americans succeeded, after a fierce hand to hand fight, in entering the intrenchments.

Stark shouted to his men, "Forward, boys, charge them home!" and his troops, maddened by the conflict, swept the hill with irresistible valor. They pushed forward without discipline or order, seized the artillery, and gave chase to the flying enemy. The field being won, plunder became the object of the militia.

The guns, sabres, stores and equipments of the defeated foe were being gathered up, when Colonel Breyman, with 500 men, suddenly appeared upon the field. He had been sent by Burgoyne to reinforce Baume, but the heavy rain had prevented his men from marching at a rapid rate. The flying troops instantly rallied and joined the new array, which speedily assumed an order of battle, and began to press the scattered forces of the patriots. This was a critical period. Stark put forth every effort to rally his men, but they were exhausted, scattered, and nearly out of ammunition. It seemed as if the fortune of the day was in the royal hands, when from the edge of a strip of forest, half a mile off, came a loud and genuine American cheer. Stark turned, and beheld emerging from the wood, the Berkshire regiment, under Colonel Warner. This body of men, also delayed by the rain, after a forced march, had just reached the battle field, panting for a share in the affray. General Stark hastened to the captain of the foremost company, and ordered him to lead his men to the charge at once. But the captain coolly asked, "Where's the colonel? I want to see Colonel Warner before I move." The colonel was sent for, and the redoubtable captain, drawing himself up, said, with a nasal twang peculiar to the puritans of old, "Naow, Kernal, what d'ye want me tu dew?" "Drive those red-coats from the hill yonder," was the answer. "Wall, it shall be done," said the captain, and issuing the necessary orders, he led his men to the charge without a moment's hesitation.

Said an eye-witness, afterwards, "The last we saw of Warner's regiment for half an hour, was when they entered the smoke and fire about half way up the hill." Stark with a portion of his rallied troops supported the Berkshire men, and the royal forces were defeated after a close contest. A portion of them escaped, but 700 men and officers were taken prisoners, among the latter Colonel Baume, who soon died of his wound.

The British lost 207 men killed, and a large number wounded. Of the Americans, about 100 were killed and the same number wounded. The spoils consisted of four pieces of cannon, several hundred stand of excellent muskets, 250 dragoon swords, 8 brass drums, and 4 wagons laden with stores, clothing and ammunition.

This victory severely crippled Burgoyne, and discouraged his army, while it enlivened the Americans from one extent of the country to the other. It taught the British troops to respect the American militia, and it was a brilliant precursor to the victories of Saratoga and Bemis' Heights.

Congress voted thanks to General Stark and his brave troops for their great victory, and took measures to push on the war with renewed energy and hope.

MISCELLANY.

THE TAKING OF TICONDEROGA.

Inasmuch as the capture of the fortress of Ticonderoga was the work of the "Green Mountain Boys," it seems but just to append the

account of their exploits to the description we have given of their State. The following narrative is taken from "Williams' History of Vermont:"

The first steps for this object seem to have been taken by some gentlemen in Connecticut; and Messrs. Deane, Wooster, Parsons, and others engaged in the affair. The success depended on the secrecy with which the affair could be managed. Their first object was to obtain a sum of money to bear the necessary expenses. They procured this to the amount of about \$1800, from the general assembly of Connecticut, by way of loan. Several of the militia captains pushed forward to Salisbury, the northwestern town in that colony; and after a little consultation concluded not to spend any time in raising men, but to procure a quantity of powder and ball, and set off immediately for Bennington, and engage Ethan Allen in the business. With his usual spirit of activity and enterprise, Allen undertook the management of the scheme; and set off to the northward, to raise and collect all the men that he could find. The Connecticut gentlemen having procured a small quantity of provisions, went on to Castleton; and were there joined by Allen, with the men that he had raised from the new settlements. The whole number that were assembled amounted to 270, of which 230 were raised on the New Hampshire grants, distinguished at that time by the name of Green Mountain Boys; so called from the Green Mountains, among which they resided. Sentries were immediately placed on all the roads, and the necessary measures taken to procure intelligence of the state of the works and garrison at Ticonderoga.

While Allen and his associates were collecting at Castleton, Colonel Arnold arrived, attended only by a servant. This officer belonged to New Haven, in Connecticut. As soon as the news arrived at that place that hostilities had commenced at Lexington, Arnold, then a captain, set out at the head of a volunteer company, and marched with the greatest expedition to Cambridge. The day after his arrival, he attended the Massachusetts committee of safety, and reported to them that the fort at Ticonderoga was in a ruinous condition; that it was garrisoned by about 40 men, and contained a large quantity of artillery and military stores; and might easily be captured. The committee wished to avail themselves of his information and activity; and on the 3d of May appointed him a colonel, and gave him directions to enlist 400 men, and march for the reduction of Ticonderoga. Under these orders, and with this design, he joined the men that were assembling at Castleton; but was unknown to any of them but a Mr. Blagden, one of the Connecticut officers. His commission being examined, it was agreed in a council that he should be admitted to join and act with them; but that Allen should also have the commission of a colonel, and have the command; and that Arnold should be considered as his assistant.

To procure intelligence, Captain Noah Phelps, one of the gentlemen from Connecticut, disguised himself in the habit of one of the poor settlers, and went into the fort, pretending he wanted to be shaved, and inquired for a barber. Affecting an awkward appearance, and asking many simple questions, he passed unsuspected, and had an opportunity to observe the state of everything within the walls. Returning to his party, he gave them the necessary information, and the same night they began their march to the fort.

With so much expedition and secrecy had the enterprise been conducted, that Colonel Allen arrived at Orwell, opposite to Ticonderoga, on the 9th of May, at

night, with his 230 Green Mountain Boys, without any intelligence or apprehension on the part of the garrison. It was with difficulty that boats could be procured to pass the lake; a few, however, being collected, Allen and Arnold passed over, with 83 men, and landed near the works. Arnold now wished to assume the command, to lead on the men, and swore that he would go in himself the first. Allen swore that he should not, but that he himself would be the first man that should enter. The dispute beginning to run high, some of the gentlemen that were present interposed, and it was agreed that both should go in together, Allen on the right hand and Arnold on the left. On the 10th of May, in the gray of the morning, they both entered the port leading to the fort, followed by their men. The sentry snapped his fusée at Allen, and retreated through the covered way. The Americans followed the sentry, and immediately drew up on the parade. Captain De la Place commanded, but he was so little apprehensive of any danger or hostility, that he was surprised in his bed. As soon as he appeared, he was ordered to surrender the fort. "Upon what authority do you require it?" said De la Place. "I demand it," said Allen, "in the name of the great Jehovah and the Continental Congress." Surrounded by the Americans, who were already in possession of the works, it was not in the power of the British captain to make any opposition, and he surrendered his garrison prisoners of war, without knowing by what authority Allen was acting, or that hostilities had commenced between Britain and the Colonies. After Allen had landed with his party, the boats were sent back for Colonel Seth Warner with the remainder of the men, who had been left under his command. Warner did not arrive till after the place had surrendered, but he took the command of a party who set off for Crown Point. At that place there were only a sergeant and 12 men to perform garrison duty. They surrendered upon the first summons, and Warner took possession of Crown Point on the same day that Ticonderoga was given up. Another party surprised Skeensborough, made a prisoner of Major Skeen, the son, took possession of a strong stone house which he had built, secured his dependents and domestics, and made themselves masters of that important harbor.

By these enterprises the Americans had captured a British captain, lieutenant, and 44 privates. In the forts they found above 200 pieces of cannon, some mortars, howitzers, and large quantities of ammunition and military stores; and a warehouse full of materials for carrying on the business of building boats. Having succeeded in their attempts against Ticonderoga and Crown Point, it was still necessary, in order to secure the command of Lake Champlain, to get possession of an armed sloop which lay at St. John's, at the north end of the lake. To effect this purpose, it was determined to man and arm a schooner, which lay at South Bay. Arnold had the command of the schooner, and Allen took the command of a number of batteaux, and both sailed for St. John's. The wind being fresh at the south, Arnold soon passed the lake, surprised and captured the armed sloop in the harbor of St. John's: in about an hour after he had taken her, the wind suddenly shifted to the north, and Arnold made sail with his prize, and met Allen with his batteaux at some distance from St. John's.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Area,	7800 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	1,231,066
Population in 1870,	1,457,351

THE State of Massachusetts is situated (including its islands) between $41^{\circ} 10'$ and $42^{\circ} 53'$ N. latitude, and between $69^{\circ} 50'$ and $73^{\circ} 30'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by New Hampshire and Vermont, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by the Atlantic, and the States of Rhode Island and Connecticut, and on the west by New York. It is very irregular in shape, its southeastern extremity extending far out into the ocean, and curving so as to almost enclose Cape Cod Bay. Its greatest length from east to west is about 145 miles. The eastern side is about 90 miles wide from north to south, and its western end about 48 miles broad.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The State has a considerable extent of sea coast, and possesses a number of excellent harbors.

Massachusetts Bay and *Cape Cod Bay* are really one and the same sheet of water, and comprise a large gulf, which indents the eastern coast of the State for about 25 miles in a southwest and 65 miles in a southeast direction. The upper, or northern part of this gulf is called Massachusetts Bay, and the lower part Cape Cod Bay. The latter is famous as having been the harbor in which the Mayflower cast anchor after her long and weary voyage from England, in 1620. The extreme eastern part of the State extends around Cape Cod Bay, enclosing it in a kind of semicircle. Plymouth is situated on the northwest side of this bay. Boston lies on the west side of Massachusetts Bay.

Buzzard's Bay, in the southeastern part of the State, extends inland in a northward direction for about 30 miles, and is about 7 miles wide. The harbors of New Bedford, Fair Haven, and Rochester lie along this bay, which is separated from Vineyard Sound by the Elizabeth Islands.

Martha's Vineyard and the *Elizabeth Islands* lie in the Atlantic to the south of Barnstable county, and together form Duke's county. *Martha's Vineyard* is separated from Barnstable county, on the mainland, by Vineyard Sound, a sheet of water from 3 to 7 miles wide. The island is 21 miles long, and from 3 to 9 miles wide. Edgarton is the chief town. *The Elizabeth Islands*, 16 in number, lie between Buzzard's Bay and Vineyard Sound. Only 2 or 3 are inhabited. The people of Duke's county are engaged principally in fishing and navigation.

Nantucket is the name given to a large island in the Atlantic, about 30 miles south of Barnstable county. It is about 15 miles long, and from 3 to 4 miles wide. Several small islands lie immediately on its northern coast, and with it form the county of Nantucket. The chief town is Nantucket, on the northern part of the main island. This town was founded in 1659, and is one of the most thriving in the State. It is compactly and neatly built, has a library of several thousand volumes, 8 or 9 churches, a bank with a capital of \$200,000, and several handsome buildings. The inhabitants are actively engaged in the fisheries, and, until the discovery of petroleum rendered this traffic of comparatively little importance, Nantucket was one of the principal depots of the whale trade. In 1863, 4407 tons of shipping were owned on the island. Steam communication is maintained with the mainland. In 1860, the population of the town was 5000, of the county 6064. In 1870, it was 4134. During the Revolution and the war of 1812-15, Nantucket sent out numerous privateers against the British commerce, and a Nantucket ship was the first to show the "Stars and Stripes" in the river Thames, after the recognition of our independence by Great Britain.

The surface of Massachusetts is generally uneven, and in the western part is broken into mountain ranges of a moderate elevation. The southeastern part is level and sandy, and the eastern and middle parts are broken and rugged. The Green Mountains pass across the western part of the State, from Vermont, and extend into Connecticut. They are about 20 or 30 miles west of the Connecticut River, and pursue a course parallel with it. Besides this range, there are several

isolated peaks in the State, the principal of which are Wachusett Mountain, 2018 feet; in the north-central part of the State, Mount Tom, 1200 feet; and Mount Holyoke, 910 feet, near Northampton. These are considered outliers of the White Mountain range, of New Hampshire. The Green Mountains are divided into two ridges in Massachusetts. The eastern is the lowest, and is called the Hoosic Ridge; and the western is the most elevated, and is called the Tanguannic Range. Its highest peak is Mount Washington, 2264 feet, in the southwest corner of the State.

The *Connecticut* is the principal river of the State, flowing across it from north to south, and into the State of Connecticut. It is rendered navigable by means of canals, and furnishes excellent water-power. The *Merrimac*, which has already been described in the chapter on New Hampshire, turns the mills of Lowell and Lawrence. The tributaries of the former stream in this State are Miller's, the Chicopee, Deerfield, and Westfield rivers; those of the latter, the Nashua and Concord. Taunton River furnishes excellent water-power, and supplies the factories of the cities of Taunton and Fall River. Charles River rises in the interior, and flows into Massachusetts Bay.

"Massachusetts abounds in picturesque scenery. This observation is especially true of the western part of the State, and the view of the Connecticut River and Valley from Mount Holyoke has long been celebrated. Though rather less than 1000 feet in height, the views it commands, and its easy ascent, being traversed to its summit by a good carriage road, have invited hither many tourists in the season for travelling. The spectator has below him the beautiful meandering Connecticut wending its way through the meadows and among the villages, while to the southwest, and at no great distance, is Mount Tom; and still farther in the same direction, Bald or Washington Mount, and in the northwest Saddle Mountain, the highest ground in the State; and turning to the east and northeast he has the peaks of Wachusett in Massachusetts, and Monadnock in New Hampshire; the intermediate parts of the scene being filled up with a great variety of landscape, villages, hills, rivulets, and low mountains. There is a good hotel on the top of Mount Holyoke, and in the vicinity the beautiful village of Northampton, at which the tourist may take up his quarters and make his excursion from thence over the mountain. A yet more extensive view is obtained from Saddle Mountain, but it has hitherto lain more out of the line of travel, and been less visited, though of thrice the elevation of Mount Tom. It commands a view of the

surrounding country for 40 or 50 miles, extending to the Catskills on the west, overlooking the Green Mountains on the north, south, and east, and on the northeast reaching to Monadnock Mountain, in New Hampshire. This mountain is fertile to the summit, near which is a small lake or pond. Goodrich describes a phenomenon as having occurred here in 1784, called by the inhabitants *the bursting of a cloud*. About dawn of a certain morning, the tenants of a house on the banks of the Hoosic, on the western slope, were aroused by the roaring of the torrent, and had barely time to escape before their dwelling was swept away by the flood. The torrent wore a gully in the mountain 20 feet deep, and swept away the timber entirely from about 10 acres of land. Berkshire county abounds in sublime and picturesque scenery, and has become a favorite resort not only for tourists, but for citizens seeking pleasant summer residences. Hawthorne, Miss Sedgwick, Fanny Kemble, James, and others, have rendered their tribute to the charms of Berkshire scenery, by taking up their abode there for considerable periods. The Ice Hole, a narrow and deep ravine of great wildness, in Stockbridge, where the ice remains the year round; a fall of about 70 feet descent, amid wild scenery, in the Housatonic, in Dalton; the Natural Bridge, on Hudson's Brook, in Adams, where a fissure of from 30 to 60 feet deep, and about 500 feet long, has been worn through the limestone rock, forming a bridge 50 feet above the water; a rock of 30 or 40 tons, in New Marlboro', so nicely balanced that a finger can move it; and Hanging Mountain, on the Farmington River, in Sandisfield, rising in a perpendicular wall above the river to the height of more than 300 feet; are, after the mountains already named, the most remarkable natural objects in Berkshire. Blue Hill, 11 miles southwest of Boston, which commands a fine view of Boston Harbor and the ocean, is 635 feet high, being the most elevated land in Eastern Massachusetts. On the side of Mount Toby, a hill of sandstone, elevated about 1000 feet above the Connecticut, is a cavern about 150 feet in length and 60 in depth. Nahant, a rocky promontory on the north shore of Boston Bay, extending 4 miles into the sea, is the most noted watering-place in Massachusetts. It is about 9 miles northeast of Boston, and commands a fine view of the ocean, and of the shipping entering and departing from the harbor. In addition to its good beach, Nahant has the charm of wildness given to it by the rugged rocks which form the promontory, and into the caves and recesses of which the sea surges at times with great violence. The mineral springs of this State have

not acquired any great celebrity beyond her own limits; the principal are, one in the town of Hopkinton, impregnated with carbonic acid, and carbonates of lime and iron; one in Shutesbury, containing muriate of lime; and a chalybeate sulphur spring in Winchenden. The Quincy granite quarries, 6 or 8 miles south of Boston, in a range of hills 200 feet high, are worthy of a visit." *

MINERALS.

Granite abounds, and is shipped to all parts of the Union for building purposes. The gray granite of the Quincy Hills is famous. Marble is found in Berkshire county. The new wings of the Capitol at Washington, and Girard College at Philadelphia are constructed of marble from this county. Small deposits of anthracite coal are found in Hampshire county. Iron is found in great abundance west of the Connecticut River, and in limited quantities in Plymouth and Bristol counties, while lead mines have been worked in Hampshire county (at Northampton), since 1765. The other minerals are gneiss, quartz, mica, limestone, hornblende, serpentine, asbestos, and slate.

CLIMATE.

The climate of Massachusetts is very severe in the winter. The writer has seen the thermometer indicate 28° below zero at 8 o'clock A. M. in Boston. The summers are short, and would be pleasant on the coast were it not for the sudden changes from extreme heat to cold by which they are marked. The spring is rendered disagreeable by severe northeast winds, which are a fruitful source of pulmonary complaints. In the western part of the State, the climate is steadier. The winter sets in early in all sections, and lasts long, but the spring, though late, is rapid. The early fruit trees are in full bloom by the middle of April.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The soil of Massachusetts is not naturally fertile, but has been rendered productive by the industry of its people. The best lands are in the central and western counties, especially in the valleys of the Connecticut, Housatonic, and other streams. The farmers of Massachusetts compare favorably with those of any other part of the Union

* Lippincott's Gazetteer, p. 1156.

in intelligence, and there is perhaps no State which devotes more scientific skill to the production of its crops. The population is the densest in the Union, and the amount of grain produced is not adequate to the demands of the community.

There are about 2,155,512 acres of improved land in Massachusetts, and 1,183,212 acres of unimproved land. The following statement shows the remainder of the agricultural wealth of the State at the present time:

Cash value of farms,	\$123,255,948
Value of farming implements and machinery,	\$3,894,998
Number of horses,	49,450
“ asses and mules,	189
“ milch cows,	160,220
“ other cattle,	140,340
“ sheep,	119,560
“ swine,	93,540
Value of domestic animals,	\$9,737,744
Bushels of wheat,	167,000
“ rye,	462,000
“ Indian corn,	1,950,000
“ oats,	1,525,000
“ Irish potatoes,	4,300,000
“ barley,	144,000
“ buckwheat,	85,000
Pounds of wool,	377,267
“ butter,	8,297,936
“ cheese,	5,294,090
“ hops,	111,301
“ maple sugar,	1,006,078
“ beeswax and honey,	62,414
Tons of hay,	850,000
Value of orchard products,	\$925,519
“ market garden products,	\$1,397,623
“ home-made manufactures,	\$245,886
“ slaughtered animals,	\$2,915,045

COMMERCE.

In the extent and value of her commerce, Massachusetts stands next to New York. The total tonnage of the State in 1874 was 458,373, of which a part was engaged in the whale fisheries. In 1855, the total value of the product of the whale fisheries was \$6,766,996. In the same year the product of the cod and mackerel fisheries was \$2,902,796. In 1861, the total exports of Massachusetts were \$16,532,736, and the total imports, \$45,399,844.

MANUFACTURES.

Massachusetts is the third State in the Union in manufactures, and the first as regards her cotton and woollen manufactures. By the census of 1870 there were 13,212 establishments in the State, devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts, employing a capital of \$231,677,862 and 279,380 hands, and yielding an annual product of \$553,912,568. There were 194 cotton mills, employing 13,713 male and 24,128 female hands and a capital of \$44,822,395. They consumed raw material worth \$37,545,686; paid \$13,612,925 for labor; and yielded an annual product of \$59,979,153. There were 182 woollen mills, employing 10,754 male, and 7437 female hands, and a capital of \$20,622,400. They consumed raw material worth \$24,866,118, paid \$7,296,752 for labor, and returned an annual product of \$39,489,242. The value of leather produced was \$33,658,475; of boots and shoes, \$88,399,583; of pig iron, \$722,225; of rolled iron, \$6,699,907; of steam engines and machinery, \$16,426,842; of agricultural implements, \$1,033,590; of sawed and planed lumber, \$8,651,690; of malt liquors, \$1,542,487; of spirituous liquors, \$774,821; of furniture, \$4,124,822; the value of paper manufactured was \$12,687,481.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In proportion to its size and population, Massachusetts is the most important State in the Union as regards its railroads. In 1871, there were 1975 miles of single track in the State. These were constructed and equipped at a cost of \$72,175,091, and during the year 1865, their net earnings amounted to \$6,173,157. Boston is the great railroad centre. Three continuous lines extend from that city into New York, two of them passing through the principal towns of Rhode Island and Connecticut. Two lines extend from Boston to Portland, passing through the intervening towns. Lines extend from the former city to all parts of the State, into New Hampshire, Vermont, and Canada, and by means of the Boston and Troy (N. Y.) Railroad, there is now unbroken railroad communication between Boston and all parts of the west and the Pacific Ocean.

EDUCATION.

The State provides liberally for the cause of education. "The Board of Education, which consists of the Governor, Lieutenant-



HARVARD UNIVERSITY, CAMBRIDGE, MASSACHUSETTS.

Governor, and eight members appointed by the Governor and Council, has the general oversight of the Normal Schools, Public Schools, and of Educational Statistics. The officers, trustees, or persons in charge of every institution of learning, whether literary, scientific, or professional, public or private, and of all reform schools or almshouses, are required by law to report to the Board on or before the 1st day of June in each year, giving such statistics as the Board shall prescribe. The Board appoints a Secretary, who is its chief executive officer, and who gives his whole time to the supervision and improvement of common schools. Each town elects a School Committee of three persons, or a number which is a multiple of three, who examine teachers, visit schools, and have a general oversight of the schools of the town. In the cities and some of the larger towns, the School Committee appoints a superintendent, who has the immediate charge of the schools. The number of school districts is annually diminishing, there being 323 less in 1867 than in 1866, and 672 less than in 1861. Where the districts are abolished, the schools are managed entirely by the towns. Each town having 500 or more families is by law required to maintain a public high school.

"Provision for the special education of teachers is made in four State Normal Schools, two of which are for both sexes, and two for female teachers only. A Girls' High and Normal School, and an efficient Training School, are also maintained by the city of Boston, for preparing teachers for primary schools. Teachers' Institutes are held annually under the direction of the Secretary of the Board of Education."

The public schools are supported by direct taxes. In 1870, the amount expended for these schools, exclusive of the cost of erecting and repairing buildings, was \$3,125,053. In 1870 there were in the State 5100 public schools, presided over by 8977 teachers. The attendance was as follows: 242,155 pupils; 121,572 being males, and 120,573 females.

Harvard University, at Cambridge, is the oldest college in the Union, and ranks among the first in standing and usefulness. Besides the regular collegiate course, it has schools of divinity, medicine, law, science, and philosophy. Its museum of Scientific Zoölogy is the best in the country. Its faculty has included some of the most eminent men of the land, and many of our greatest statesmen, jurists, and men of science are numbered amongst its alumni. Williams College, at Williamstown, Amherst, at Amherst, Holy Cross, at Worcester, and Tufts, at Medford, are the other colleges of the State. All are well attended, and are prosperous.

In 1871, there were 55 incorporated academies, with an average attendance of 3696 pupils; and 553 private schools of all grades, the estimated average attendance of which was 14,417.

In 1870, there were in the State 3169 libraries, containing 3,017,813 volumes. Of these, about 1500 were public. In Massachusetts, as well as in the other New England States, there is a public library in nearly every town.

In 1870, there were 259 periodicals published in the State—129 political, 31 religious, 54 literary and miscellaneous. Of these, 21 were daily, 1 tri-weekly, 14 semi-weekly, 13 weekly, 48 monthly, 6 quarterly, and 1 annual. Their aggregate annual circulation was 129,691,266 copies.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The State Prison is located at Charlestown. It was founded in 1800. The commutation system is in successful operation. Prisoners are confined in separate cells, and are required to perform their

work in silence. On the 30th of September, 1869, there were 593 prisoners confined in this establishment. The profits of the labor performed by the convicts amounted, during the year 1868-69, to \$26,781 over the expenses of conducting the establishment.

In the old graveyard adjoining the prison is the monument to John Harvard, erected to his memory in 1828, by the students of Harvard University.

There are in Massachusetts 20 jails, 16 houses of correction, and 1 House of Industry.

The Board of State Charities has charge of all the charitable institutions of the State. These are the lunatic asylums, the almshouses, and reform schools.

There are three *State Lunatic Hospitals*, located respectively at Worcester, Taunton, and Northampton. All these receive State, town, and private patients. The State patients at the Northampton Hospital consist of incurables transferred from the other institutions.

The *State Almshouses* are three in number, and are located respectively at Tewksbury, Monson, and Bridgewater. The Tewksbury Almshouse is a receptacle for aged, helpless, harmless, and insane paupers; that at Monson is provided with a primary school, and is devoted to children old enough to receive education; while the Bridgewater Almshouse is a place of confinement for persons sentenced to a workhouse.

There are three Reform Schools,—the *State Industrial School* for girls, at Lancaster, where a most excellent influence is exerted for the purpose of reclaiming young girls from vicious lives; the *State Reform School* for boys, at Westborough, where a similar course of treatment is pursued for boys; and the *Massachusetts Nautical School*, established on two ships, at Boston and New Bedford, in which boys of bad character are placed for reformation. In this school the boys are trained for the U. S. Navy and the whaling service.

These institutions are all in a flourishing condition.

The State also supports wholly, or in part, the School for Idiotic and Feeble-Minded Youth, at South Boston; the Perkins Institution and Massachusetts Asylum for the Blind; the Massachusetts General Hospital; the Eye and Ear Infirmary; the Washingtonian Home; the Discharged Soldiers' Home; the Temporary Asylum for Discharged Female Prisoners; the Home for the Friendless; the New England Moral Reform Society; and the Agency for Discharged Convicts. Pupils are maintained at the expense of the State in the

"Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb," at Hartford, Conn., and at the Clarke Institution for Deaf Mutes, at Northampton, Mass.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, the value of church property in Massachusetts was \$24,488,285. In the same year there were 1764 churches in the State.

FINANCES.

On the 1st of January, 1875, the total State debt was \$29,465,204. In the same year, the sinking fund for the redemption of this debt amounted to over \$10,989,595.

On the 1st of October, 1868, there were 207 National Banks in the State, with an aggregate paid-in capital of \$80,032,000.

GOVERNMENT.

The right of suffrage in this State is denied to paupers and persons under guardianship, but is extended to each male adult, able to read the Constitution of the State in the English language and to write his name, who has been a resident of the State for one year, and of his election district for six months.

The State Government is vested in a Governor, assisted by an Executive Council of 8 members (one from each Council district of the State), a Lieutenant-Governor, a Legislature consisting of a Senate (of 40 members) and a House of Representatives (of 240 members), together styled "The General Court of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts," a Secretary of State, a Treasurer, an Auditor, and an Attorney General, all chosen annually by the people, on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November. They enter upon their duties on the first Wednesday in January.

The Judiciary comprises a Supreme Judicial Court, a Superior Court, a Probate Court in each county, and municipal and police courts in the cities and towns.

The Supreme Judicial Court consists of a Chief Justice, and five Associate Justices. It has exclusive cognizance of all capital crimes, and "exclusive chancery jurisdiction so far as chancery powers are conferred by statute, and concurrent original jurisdiction of all civil cases where the amount in dispute exceeds \$4000 in Suffolk county and \$1000 in all other counties."

The Superior Court consists of a Chief Justice, and nine Associate Justices. It has jurisdiction in all criminal cases, except capital cases, and in all civil cases where the amount in dispute is over \$20.

The Governor of the State, by and with the advice and consent of his Council, appoints the Judges of both Courts, who hold office during good behavior. The seat of Government is established at Boston.

For the purposes of government, the State is divided into 14 counties.

HISTORY.

According to the icelandic legend, Massachusetts was first discovered by Biörn, in the year 906 ; but, as we have elsewhere intimated, this legend is vague and devoid of substantial proof, and the credit of the first discovery must be given to John Cabot, who visited the coast in 1497, under the orders of Henry VII. of England, and five years after the first voyage of Columbus. He failed to discover any inhabitants, but at a later period, his son, Sebastian, while endeavoring to discover a northwest passage to China, visited the waters of New England, found that the country was inhabited, and took three of the natives with him to England. The Spaniards subsequently made some landings on the coast, and carried off a number of the natives, whom they sold in Europe as slaves. No attempt at settlement was made until 1602, when Bartholomew Gosnold, with a colony of 32 persons, made a lodgement on one of the Elizabeth Islands. The settlement was abandoned in a few weeks, however, in consequence of internal dissensions, and the expedition returned to England. This attempt had the effect of bringing the new country into prominent notice in England, and the Plymouth Company was organized, several years later, under the leadership of Sir John Popham and Sir Ferdinando Gorges, the first the Chief Justice of the King's Bench, and the other the Governor of Plymouth. This company was given almost sovereign powers over the territory assigned it. In 1614, Captain John Smith published a map of New England, together with a description of the country along the coast, which greatly increased the interest felt in the matter. The company sent out one or two trading expeditions, which were successful ; but the first permanent settlement was made in 1620, at Plymouth, by a band of English Puritans, who were fleeing from religious persecution in their own country, and whose attempt was made without the sanction or authority of the Plymouth Company. They held a patent from the Virginia Company, whose

territory lay south of the Hudson, and the king would do no more than promise not to molest them.

Soon after landing at Plymouth, this colony made a treaty of friendship with the Indians, which was not broken for a long period. The settlers endured many privations and hardships, but bore them all bravely until they had placed their settlement beyond all danger of failure, and were joined by other emigrants from England. Other lodgements were made along the coast during the next twenty years, at Salem, Boston, Charlestown, Roxbury, Watertown, Dorchester, Mystic and Saugus (Lynn), and other places. In 1629, Charles I. granted the Plymouth Colony a charter, and the government of the province was divided between the colonies of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay, which were united under one administration in 1692.

The Bay colony was much annoyed by the interference of the home Government, which became jealous of its rapid growth and prosperity, and after an aggravating contest, which at one time bade fair to result in blows, the matter was settled. The king refused to yield what he claimed as his right to interfere in the domestic affairs of the colony, whose officials, however, adroitly managed to prevent the exercise of such authority on his part.

In 1637, the war against the Pequots broke out, and the settlements towards Connecticut, upon which colony fell the principal shock of the war, suffered considerably. In 1675, King Philip's war began. This struggle was a bloody one, and lasted for more than a year. During its continuance, 12 or 13 towns were destroyed, more than 600 men were killed, and about 600 houses burned by the savages. The war cost the colony half a million of dollars, and rendered one-twentieth of the number of families homeless.

Massachusetts at this time claimed jurisdiction over New Hampshire and Maine, but was deprived of it by the home Government in 1684. This act was followed by the appointment of Sir Edmund Andros as Governor of New England. Andros and his Council were guilty of the most infamous tyranny. They made laws and levied taxes in the most outrageous manner, and rendered themselves so odious to the colony, that as soon as news was received of the landing of William and Mary in England, the people of Boston rose in arms, imprisoned Andros and his companions, reinstated the former magistrates, and declared for the new king and queen. They were sustained in this action by the rest of the province.

In 1690, in the war with France, Massachusetts sent out an expe-

dition under Sir William Phipps, which took and plundered Port Royal. When the fleet returned, the Province was not able to pay the men engaged in the expedition, and treasury notes were issued for that purpose. This was the first paper money seen in the colony.

In 1692, the colonies of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay were united by the Crown under one Government. Massachusetts at this time was divided into the counties of Suffolk, Essex, Middlesex, and Hampshire. It contained 55 towns, and had a total population of about 40,000. Plymouth was divided into the counties of Plymouth, Bristol, and Barnstable. It contained 17 towns, and had a population of 7000. Sir William Phipps was appointed the first Governor under the new charter.

In 1692, a remarkable delusion broke out in the colony on the subject of witchcraft, beginning at and centering in Salem. In 1703, great suffering prevailed along the western border in consequence of the outrages of the French and Indians. During this war, Deerfield was burned a second time, having been first destroyed during King Philip's war. The struggle lasted several years, but the colony continued to grow and prosper in spite of it. In 1722, war was resumed with the Indians, and continued for three years. It was prosecuted with such vigor on the part of the province, that the power of the savages was broken forever, and the long contest with them which had lasted for forty years was finally and triumphantly closed.

In 1744, war again broke out with France, and the forces of the province distinguished themselves in the capture of Louisburg. Peace was restored in 1748, but did not long continue. The colony bore a fair share in all the struggles against the power of France in America, and responded liberally to every call for men and money. The lessons learned in these contests were of infinite value in the great struggle for freedom which followed them.

At the commencement of the troubles with the mother country, the province was well settled in all its parts, and had a total population of about 250,000 souls. In spite of the efforts of Great Britain to prevent it, it had built up a flourishing commerce, was largely engaged in the fisheries, and was to some extent interested in manufactures. Its enterprise and energy, and above all, the native independence of its people, made it the chief mark of the aggressions of the Crown, which were met by it with spirit and firmness. Massachusetts was the first to inaugurate an organized effort to secure justice from the Crown, which example was followed by her sister provinces. The

events which preceded the Revolution having been narrated in another chapter, it is not necessary to return to them here. Massachusetts, being the principal object of British injustice, was forced into the most prominent position, which she maintained with dignity and credit. The other colonies made common cause with her, and the war began in the encounter between the Royal troops and the people at Lexington. The conflict at Concord followed, and the people of the province flew to arms with a rapidity which proved how thoroughly and carefully they had prepared themselves for the maintenance of their rights. During the war which ensued, Massachusetts sustained her reputation for patriotism, bravery, and self-sacrifice.

In 1780 a State Constitution was adopted, and John Hancock was elected Governor of the Commonwealth. In 1786, the people of the western counties, feeling themselves too poor to pay the heavy taxes levied for the purpose of defraying the State debt, took up arms against the authorities of the Commonwealth. The insurrection was settled after a sharp conflict with the insurgents, who were forced to submit. The outbreak is known as "Shays's Rebellion," in consequence of the insurgents having been led by one Daniel Shays.

The Constitution of the United States was ratified by Massachusetts in 1788. Although the State opposed the second war with England, the seamen of Massachusetts were true to the country, and formed a considerable part of the crews of those famous vessels which won the glorious naval victories of the war. The people of the State, as a whole, however, sustained their authorities in opposing the war, in which they had a deeper interest than they were willing to admit, and throughout the struggle hampered the Federal Government by a most unwise and unpatriotic opposition. The State bore a prominent part in the Hartford Convention, in 1814.

In 1820 the Constitution of the Commonwealth was amended, and again in 1857. In 1820 the State consented to the separation of the province of Maine, which was in the same year erected into an independent establishment, and admitted into the Union as a State.

During the late Rebellion, Massachusetts furnished 159,165 men to the army and navy of the United States.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

The principal cities and towns are: Cambridge, Lowell, Lynn, Lawrence, Charlestown, Salem, New Bedford, Newburyport, Nantucket, Gloucester, Marblehead, Plymouth, Provincetown, Worcester,

Springfield, Fall River, Chelsea, Taunton, Chicopee, Danvers, Andover, and Haverhill.

BOSTON,

The capital of the State, and the largest city in New England, is situated on Massachusetts Bay, 46½ miles northeast of Washington, and 236 miles northeast of New York. Latitude $42^{\circ} 21' 22''$ N.; longitude $71^{\circ} 4' 9''$ W. It is decidedly one of the most interesting cities in the Union, apart from its being the metropolis of New England and the second commercial city of the Republic.

It is divided into 3 sections, Boston proper, East, and South Boston. Boston proper, or the old city, is built upon a peninsula originally covering about 700 acres, but now much enlarged by the addition of "made land." The surface of this peninsula is broken by 3 hills, which caused the first settlers to call the place Tremont, or Trimountain. The city was originally very narrow at its southern end, but the "Back Bay," as the shoal water surrounding it is called, is now being filled up with gravel brought from Needham, to an average height of 18 feet above the surface of the water. This "made land" will eventually double the size of the old city. It is graded as it is formed, and is laid off regularly with broad streets and handsome parks. It is already well built up, and constitutes the handsomest part of Boston. It will ultimately be one of the most splendid cities in America. The old city was originally joined to the main land by a strip of land called "The Neck," so narrow and low that it afforded scarcely room for a single vehicle to pass on firm ground. Now it has been raised and widened, and 4 fine avenues traverse it and connect Boston and Roxbury.

South Boston formed a part of Dorchester until 1804, when it was added to Boston. It extends along the south side of the harbor for 2 miles, between Fort Independence and the city proper. It is devoted principally to the residences of the middle classes. This part of the city contains the famous "Dorchester Heights," the occupation of which by Washington, during the Revolution, compelled the British commander to evacuate Boston.

East Boston occupies an island in the harbor, formerly known as Noddle's Island. It is about 650 yards distant from the city proper, with which it is connected by a steam ferry. It contains a number of residences of the middle classes, and is the seat of an important manufacturing interest. Shipbuilding is carried on, and the Grand Junction Railroad terminates here.

Boston proper may be divided into the old and the new city. The old city still preserves its ancient characteristics. The houses are mostly in the style of a century ago; the streets are narrow and crooked, and have a prim, formal air. Wandering through them, one can scarcely help watching to see some old-time Puritan step out from the quaint doorways. The new city is regularly laid out. The streets are broad and straight; they cross each other at right angles, and are lined with magnificent edifices. Everything is modern.

Near the southern end of the old city is one of the finest parks in America, known as "Boston Common." It covers an area of about 50 acres, and is beautifully ornamented. Adjoining it is a handsome enclosure of 25 acres, used as a botanic garden, and known as the "Public Garden." Both the "Garden" and "Common" are surrounded by tasteful iron fences. The fence enclosing the "Common" is nearly a mile and an eighth in length. The centre of the grounds is occupied by a pretty little pond, from which a fountain sends a fine jet of water into the air. Not far from the pond is an old elm, supported by metallic bands and enclosed with an iron railing. It is the oldest tree in America, having attained its full growth in 1722. From the pond the grounds rise abruptly to the State House, which is situated on Beacon hill, just outside the enclosure. From this point they slope gently to Charles River, which washes the western shore of the city. Several small but handsome parks lie in various parts of the city.

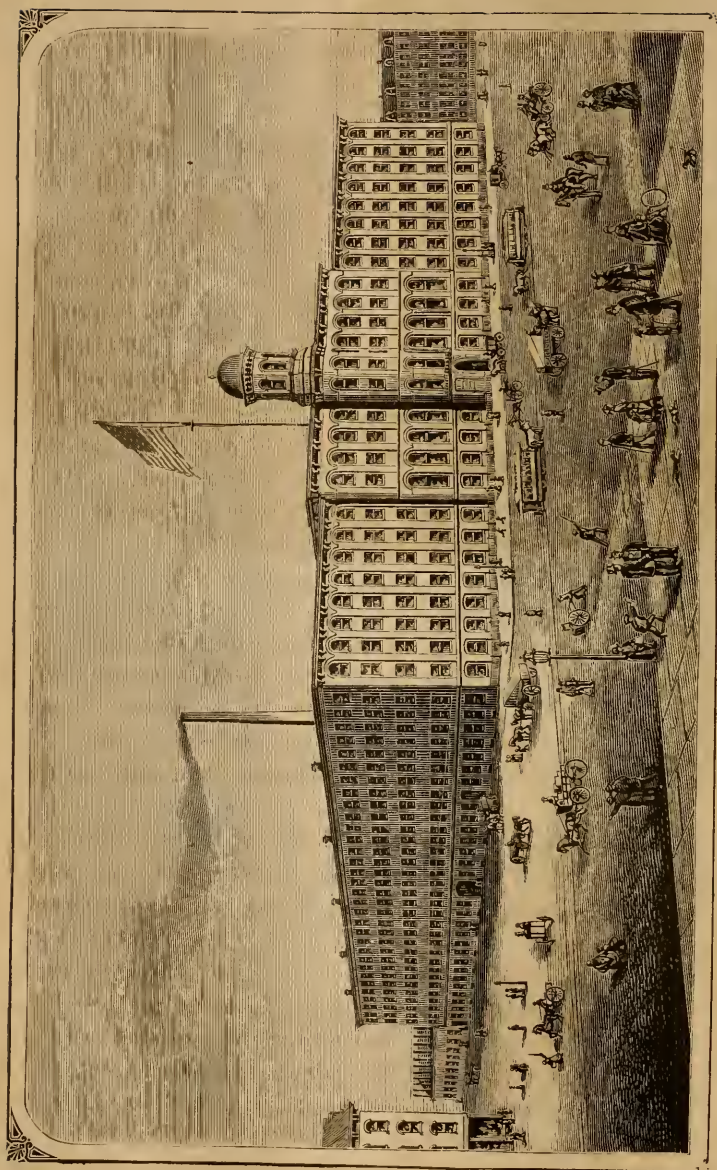
The residences of Boston exhibit considerable taste, and much wealth, but are marked by a sameness peculiar to American cities, and the stores and public buildings are among the finest in the country.

The State House, on Beacon street and Beacon hill, is a handsome, old-style structure, surmounted by a fine dome. It occupies the highest ground in the city, and is the most prominent feature of any view of Boston. Its foundation is 110 feet above the level of the sea. It was commenced in 1795, and completed in 1798, at a cost of \$133,330. In 1855 it was enlarged, \$243,204 being expended upon it for that purpose. From the dome, a magnificent view of the city, the harbor, and the surrounding country may be had. More than a dozen cities and towns can be seen from it, and in fair weather, the White Mountains of New Hampshire may be dimly discerned. The State Library is located in this building, and contains more than 25,000 volumes. In the rotunda is a collection of flags taken from the Southern forces

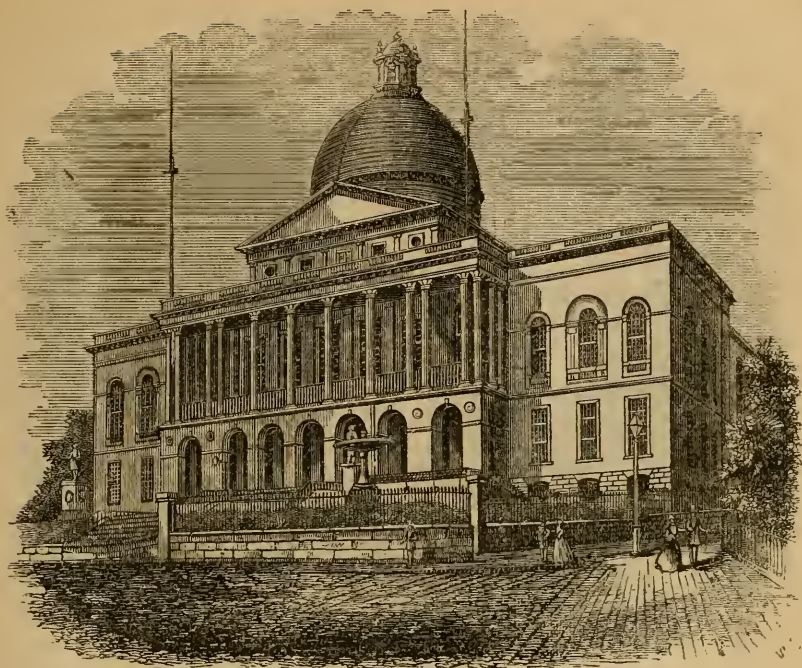
BOSTON.



YANINEEN: SUTHERN.



THE MAMMOTH PIANO-FORTE MANUFACTORY OF CHICKERING & SONS,
AT BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS.

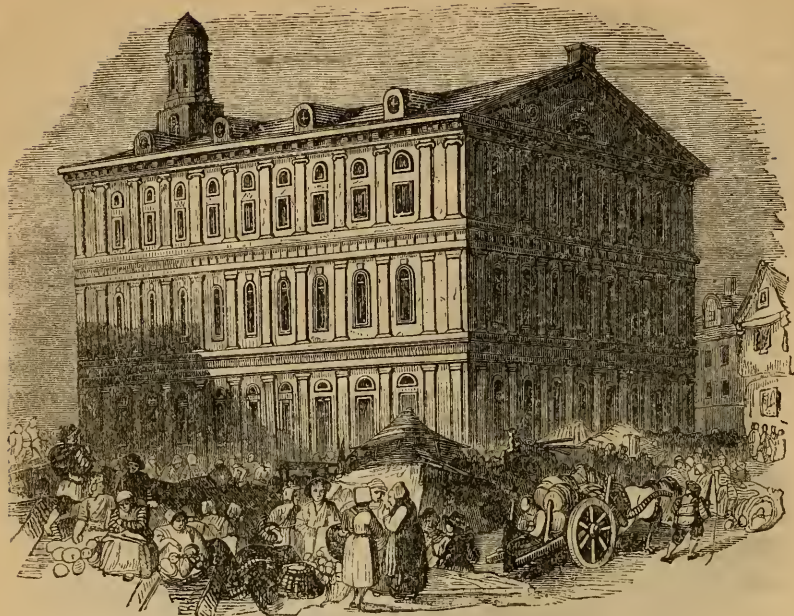


STATE HOUSE, BOSTON.

during the late war, and two cannon captured from the British during the war of 1812–15. In the *Doric Hall*, on the entrance floor, is Chantrey's statue of Washington. Statues of Daniel Webster and Horace Mann ornament the steps facing the "Common." The Chambers of the Senate and House of Delegates are handsome apartments.

The *Old State House*, at the head of State street, is a venerable and interesting building. The General Court sat here until the completion of the new State House, and in the square just below it occurred the famous "Boston Massacre."

The Court House, on Court street, the Merchants' Exchange and Post Office, on State street, and the Custom House, at the foot of State street, are fine granite buildings, and among the principal ornaments of the city. The City Hall, on School street, is a magnificent edifice, of light New Hampshire granite. It contains the offices of the City Government, but is badly located, and is almost hidden by the surrounding houses. Just opposite it stands a fine white marble hotel, called the "Parker House." The Horticultural Hall and the Masonic



FANEUIL HALL.

Temple, on Tremont street, opposite the Common, are amongst the handsomest buildings in the city. They are exhibited to strangers by the Bostonians with a pardonable pride. The former is built of white marble, and the latter of a fine granite.

Faneuil Hall, in Faneuil Hall Square, is decidedly the most interesting building in Boston. It is a large old-fashioned building. The lower part is used as a market, and the upper part as a public hall. It is 133 years old, and was built in 1742, by Peter Faneuil, who presented it to the city for a town hall. It was destroyed by fire in 1761, rebuilt in 1763, and enlarged to its present dimensions in 1805. It is often called "The Cradle of Liberty," since the public meetings of the patriots were held here in the exciting days which preceded the Revolution. To the east of the Hall is a fine granite building called the Quincy Market. The upper part comprises one of the largest halls in the Union.

The Music Hall, fronting on Winter street and Bumstead place, is one of the best halls in the country, and contains the great organ, one

of the most powerful and excellent instruments ever constructed. It was built at Ludwigslust, in Germany. It contains about 6000 pipes and 89 stops. It is 60 feet high, 48 feet broad, and 24 feet deep. It cost \$60,000.

The literary and scientific institutions of Boston are amongst the best in the country.

The *Athenæum*, situated on Beacon street, is one of the wealthiest organizations in the world. It occupies a splendid freestone building, and possesses a library of 90,000 volumes, besides pamphlets and manuscripts, and fine galleries of paintings and statuary.

The *Public Library* occupies a handsome brick building on Boylston street, erected at a cost of \$250,000. It is one of the noblest institutions in the world. Its collection is free to all tax-payers upon certain liberal conditions. It contains nearly 200,000 volumes.

The *Mercantile Library*, on Summer street, contains over 20,000 volumes. The *Massachusetts Historical Society* possesses one of the best *American* libraries in the world. It numbers about 13,000 volumes, besides many valuable maps, charts, papers, manuscripts, and other documents. The *Young Men's Christian Association* has also a good library. That of the *American Academy of Arts and Sciences* numbers over 20,000 volumes. The others are the *State Library*, *Social Law Library*, and *General Theological Library*. Besides these, the city will compare favorably with any in the country, with respect to its private libraries.

The other institutions of a literary and scientific character are, the *Lowell Institute*, the *Institute of Technology*, the *Natural History Society*, the *American Statistical Society*, the *Musical, Educational, and Handel and Haydn Societies*, and the *Boston Academy of Music*.

The public schools of Boston are amongst the best in the world. There are 254 primary, 20 grammar, and 3 high schools in the city. The school houses alone have cost the city about \$2,980,000, and the annual sum expended for their support is about \$800,000. Besides these, there are a large number of private schools in the city.

The benevolent institutions are numerous and well endowed. The *Massachusetts General Hospital*, on Charles River, just opposite Charlestown, and the new *Free City Hospital*, at the "South End," are fine institutions. The buildings of the latter constitute one of the principal ornaments of the city. The *McLean Asylum for the Insane*, a branch of the General Hospital, is located at Somerville, two miles northwest of Boston. The *Boston Lunatic Asylum* is situated in

South Boston, and the *Perkins Institution and Massachusetts Asylum for the Blind* is in the same part of the city. The *Alms House*, the *House of Industry and Reformation*, and the *Quarantine Hospital* are on Deer Island. There are over 60 benevolent institutions in the city. We have not the space to name each one, and have given only the most important.

About 125 newspapers and periodicals are issued in Boston, 6 of which are daily. Several of the leading literary and scientific journals of the country are published here.

There are more than 115 churches in the city, the largest number belonging to the Unitarians. Christ Church (Episcopal) in Salem street, was erected in 1722, Trinity Church (Episcopal) in 1734, and King's Chapel in 1636. The graveyard attached to the last named church contains the remains of many of the Puritan settlers, and is one of the most interesting spots in the city. The *Old South Church*, on Washington street, was erected in 1730. The original edifice was of wood, and was built in 1670. It was one of the famous meeting places of the leaders of the Revolution, and during the occupation of the city by the British, was used as a riding-school. In the front of the tower of the Brattle Street Church, finished in 1773, may be seen a round shot fired from the American batteries at Cambridge during the evacuation of Boston by the British. The church edifices of Boston, as a general rule, are not so handsome as those of the other large cities of the Union.

The Cemeteries are *Mount Auburn*, *Forest Hill*, and *Woodlawn*. They are very beautiful, Mount Auburn being one of the loveliest in the world.

The city is well supplied with theatres and places of amusement. The Boston Theatre is one of the largest and handsomest halls in the world.

Boston is connected with the surrounding cities of Cambridge, Charlestown, and Chelsea, and with South Boston by seven fine bridges. Nearly all are free, and all will eventually become so. A massive causeway unites it with Brookline, now a part of the city.

Telegraph lines enter the city from all parts of the Union, and there is also a municipal fire alarm and police telegraph connecting the various sections of the corporate limits.

The city is lighted with gas, and supplied with excellent water from Cochituate Lake, 20 miles distant. Lines of horse cars connect all parts of Boston with a common centre at the foot of Tremont street, and with the surrounding towns and villages.

Seven lines of railroad terminate here, extending directly to the Eastern, Middle, Southern, and Western States, and into Canada.

The principal hotels are the Parker, Tremont, and Revere Houses, and the American, St. James, and United States Hotels.

The wharves are the finest in the United States, and among the best in the world. They would measure an aggregate length of 5 miles, and are lined with splendid warehouses, many of which are built of a rough granite, and are very handsome.

The harbor opens to the sea between Point Alderton, on Nantasket, and Point Shirley, in Chelsea. The distance across from point to point is about 4 miles. There are three entrances formed by several islands which lie in the lower part. The main channel lies between Castle and Governor's Islands, and is so narrow that two ships can scarcely sail abreast through it. It is defended by Fort Independence and Fort Winthrop. Fort Winthrop also protects the passage north of Governor's Island, and Fort Warren, on George's Island, guards the lower entrance. The harbor covers an area estimated at 75 square miles. It is free from sand-bars, is rarely closed by ice, is sheltered from the sea, and is easy of access. About one-half of it affords a sure anchorage for vessels of the largest class. It receives the waters of the Charles, Mystic, Neponset, and Manatiquot rivers.

Boston is the second commercial city in the Union. In 1864, its total imports were valued at \$30,751,595, and its exports at \$21,142,834.

There are about 45 banks in the city, with a capital of about \$30,000,000.

The population (including Roxbury and Dorchester) is 250,526.

Roxbury was, until a few years since, a distinct city of Norfolk county, but is now a part of the corporation of Boston. At the beginning of the present century it was situated 3 or 4 miles south of Boston, but the intervening distance has since been built up, and the two cities, for some time before their union, joined each other so closely that a stranger could not tell where one began or the other ended. It contains a number of manufactures of its own, but is occupied principally by the residences of persons doing business in Boston. The city abounds in picturesque views, and many of its localities are very beautiful. It contained a population of about 30,000 previous to its annexation to Boston.

Dorchester, in Norfolk county, has been recently annexed to Boston. Like Roxbury, this city was chiefly occupied with residences. It contains a population of about 15,000.

Boston, as we have said, was originally called Tremont. Its first white inhabitant was the Rev. John Blackstone, who lived here alone until the arrival of Governor Winthrop, in 1630, when a settlement was established here. By the year 1635, quite a thriving village had sprung up, and the Rev. Mr. Blackstone sold his claim to the peninsula for £30. The first church was erected in 1632, and the first wharf in 1673. In 1677, the first postmaster was appointed, and in 1704, the first newspaper, called *The Boston News Letter*, was issued. Boston was one of the first communities to resist the aggressions of the mother country, and was the scene of many of the most interesting of the events which preceded the Revolution. On the 5th of March, 1770, the "Boston Massacre" occurred; on the 31st of March, 1774, the harbor of Boston was closed; on the 17th of June, 1775, the battle of Bunker Hill was fought; and in March, 1776, the town was evacuated by the British. Boston was incorporated as a city on the 23d of February, 1822.

The following incidents in the early history of Boston will be found interesting by the reader:

THE BOSTON MASSACRE.

On the 2d of March, 1770, a fray took place in Boston, near Mr. Gray's rope-walk, between a private soldier of the 29th Regiment and an inhabitant. The former was supported by his comrades, the latter by the rope-makers, till several on both sides were involved in the consequences. On the 5th a more dreadful scene was presented. The soldiers when under arms were pressed upon, insulted, and pelted by a mob armed with clubs, sticks, and snow balls covering stones. They were also dared to fire. In this situation, one of the soldiers, who had received a blow, in resentment fired at the supposed aggressor. This was followed by a single discharge from six others. Three of the inhabitants were killed, and five were dangerously wounded. The town was immediately in commotion. Such was the temper, force, and number of the inhabitants, that nothing but an engagement to remove the troops out of the town, together with the advice of moderate men prevented the townsmen from falling on the soldiers. The killed were buried in one vault, and in a most respectful manner, in order to express the indignation of the inhabitants at the slaughter of their brethren, by soldiers quartered among them, in violation of their civil liberties. Captain Preston, who commanded the party which fired on the inhabitants, was committed to jail, and afterwards tried. The captain, and six of the men, were acquitted. Two were brought in guilty of manslaughter. It appeared, on the trial, that the soldiers were abused, insulted, threatened and pelted, before they fired. It was also proved, that only seven guns were fired by the eight prisoners. These circumstances induced the jury to make a favorable verdict. The result of the trial reflected great honor on John Adams (the late President of the United States) and Josiah Quincy, Esqrs. the counsel for the prisoners; and also on the integrity of the jury, who ventured to give an upright verdict, in defiance of popular opinions.

The people, not dismayed by the blood of their neighbors thus wantonly shed, determined no longer to submit to the insolence of military power. Col. Dalrymple, who commanded in Boston, was informed the day after the riot in King street, "that he must withdraw his troops from the town within a limited term, or hazard the consequences."

The inhabitants of the town assembled in Faneuil Hall, where the subject was discussed with becoming spirit, and the people unanimously resolved that no armed force should be suffered longer to reside in the capital; that if the king's troops were not immediately withdrawn by their own officers, the Governor should be requested to give orders for their removal, and thereby prevent the necessity of more rigorous steps. A committee from the body was deputed to wait on the Governor, and request him to exert that authority which the exigencies of the times required from the supreme magistrate. Mr. Samuel Adams, the chairman of the committee, with a pathos and address peculiar to himself, exposed the illegality of quartering troops in the town in the midst of peace; he urged the apprehensions of the people, and the fatal consequences that might ensue if their removal was delayed.

But no arguments could prevail on Mr. Hutchinson; who either from timidity, or some more censurable cause, evaded acting at all in the business, and grounded his refusal on a pretended want of authority. After which, Col. Dalrymple, wishing to compromise the matter, consented that the 29th Regiment, more culpable than any other in the late tumult, should be sent to Castle Island. This concession was by no means satisfactory; the people, inflexible in their demands, insisted that not one British soldier should be left within the town; their requisition was reluctantly complied with, and within four days the whole army decamped.

THE DESTRUCTION OF THE TEA IN BOSTON HARBOR.

As we have stated in another part of this work, the cargoes of three of the tea ships sent over to Boston in 1773 were destroyed by the citizens, in consequence of the refusal of the Governor to permit the vessels to return to England. The following narrative of the occurrence is by one of the actors in it—Mr. Hewes:

The tea destroyed was contained in three ships, lying near each other, at what was called at that time Griffin's wharf, and were surrounded by armed ships of war; the commanders of which had publicly declared, that if the rebels, as they were pleased to style the Bostonians, should not withdraw their opposition to the landing of the tea before a certain day, the 17th day of December, 1773, they should on that day force it on shore, under the cover of their cannon's mouth. On the day preceding the 17th, there was a meeting of the citizens of the county of Suffolk, convened at one of the churches in Boston, for the purpose of consulting on what measures might be considered expedient to prevent the landing of the tea, or secure the people from the collection of the duty. At that meeting a committee was appointed to wait on Governor Hutchinson, and request him to inform them whether he would take any measures to satisfy the people on the object of the meeting. To the first application of this committee, the Governor told them he would give them a definite answer by five o'clock in the afternoon. At the hour appointed, the committee again repaired to the Governor's house, and on inquiry found he had gone to his country seat at Milton, a distance of about

six miles. When the committee returned and informed the meeting of the absence of the Governor, there was a confused murmur among the members, and the meeting was immediately dissolved, many of them crying out, Let every man do his duty, and be true to his country; and there was a general huzza for Griffin's wharf. It was now evening, and I immediately dressed myself in the costume of an Indian, equipped with a small hatchet, which I and my associates denominated the tomahawk, with which, and a club, after having painted my face and hands with coal dust in the shop of a blacksmith, I repaired to Griffin's wharf, where the ships lay that contained the tea. When I first appeared in the street, after being thus disguised, I fell in with many who were dressed, equipped and painted as I was, and who fell in with me, and marched in order to the place of our destination. When we arrived at the wharf, there were three of our number who assumed an authority to direct our operations, to which we readily submitted. They divided us into three parties, for the purpose of boarding the three ships which contained the tea at the same time. The name of him who commanded the division to which I was assigned, was Leonard Pitt. The names of the other commanders I never knew. We were immediately ordered by the respective commanders to board all the ships at the same time, which we promptly obeyed. The commander of the division to which I belonged, as soon as we were on board the ship, appointed me boatswain, and ordered me to go to the captain, and demand of him the keys to the hatches and a dozen candles. I made the demand accordingly, and the captain promptly replied, and delivered the articles; but requested me at the same time to do no damage to the ship or rigging. We then were ordered by our commander to open the hatches, and take out all the chests of tea and throw them overboard, and we immediately proceeded to execute his orders; first cutting and splitting the chests with our tomahawks, so as thoroughly to expose them to the effects of the water. In about three hours from the time we went on board, we had thus broken and thrown overboard every tea-chest to be found in the ship, while those in the other ships were disposing of the tea in the same way, at the same time. We were surrounded by British armed ships, but no attempt was made to resist us. We then quietly retired to our several places of residence, without having any conversation with each other, or taking any measures to discover who were our associates; nor do I recollect of our having had the knowledge of the name of a single individual concerned in that affair, except that of Leonard Pitt, the commander of my division, who I have mentioned. There appeared to be an understanding that each individual should volunteer his services, keep his own secret, and risk the consequences for himself. No disorder took place during that transaction, and it was observed at that time, that the stillest night ensued that Boston had enjoyed for many months.

During the time we were throwing the tea overboard, there were several attempts made by some of the citizens of Boston and its vicinity, to carry off small quantities of it for their family use. To effect that object, they would watch their opportunity to snatch up a handful from the deck, where it became plentifully scattered, and put it into their pockets. One Captain O'Conner, whom I well knew, came on board for that purpose, and when he supposed he was not noticed, filled his pockets, and also the lining of his coat. But I had detected him, and gave information to the captain of what he was doing. We were ordered to take him into custody, and just as he was stepping from the vessel, I seized him by the skirt of his coat, and in attempting to pull him back, I tore it off but springing forward, by a rapid effort he made his escape. He had

however to run a gauntlet through the crowd upon the wharf; each one, as he passed, giving him a kick or a stroke.

The next day we nailed the skirt of his coat, which I had pulled off, to the whipping post in Charlestown, the place of his residence, with a label upon it, commemorative of the occasion which had thus subjected the proprietor to the popular indignation.

Another attempt was made to save a little tea from the ruins of the cargo, by a tall aged man, who wore a large cocked hat and white wig, which was fashionable at that time. He had slightly slipped a little into his pocket, but being detected, they seized him, and taking his hat and wig from his head, threw them, together with the tea, of which they had emptied his pockets, into the water. In consideration of his advanced age, he was permitted to escape, with now and then a slight kick.

The next morning, after we had cleared the ships of the tea, it was discovered that very considerable quantities of it was floating upon the surface of the water; and to prevent the possibility of any of it being saved for use, a number of small boats were manned by sailors and citizens, who rowed them into those parts of the harbor wherever the tea was visible, and by beating it with oars and paddles, so thoroughly drenched it, as to render its entire destruction inevitable.

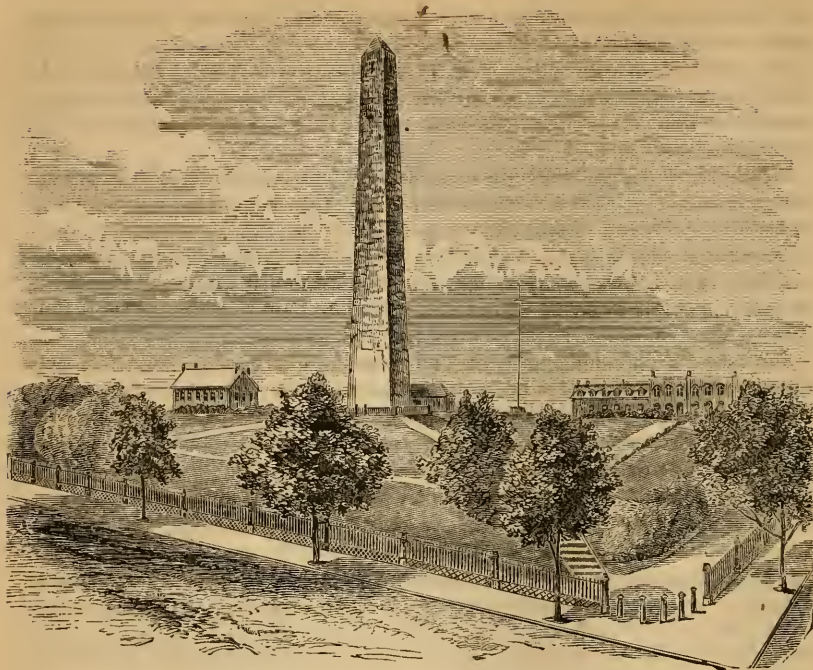
CHARLESTOWN,

In Middlesex county, is situated on a peninsula immediately north of Boston, is separated from it by the Charles River, and is connected with it by several bridges. It is regularly laid off, and handsomely built. It contains a number of churches, several banks, a large hotel, and the State Prison. It is supplied with water from Mystic Lake, is lighted with gas, and traversed by several street railways. It is extensively engaged in manufactures, but is, after all, merely a suburb of Boston, the majority of its inhabitants pursuing their avocations in that city.

It contains an important Navy Yard of the United States, which covers an area of 70 or 80 acres. This is, perhaps, the most complete establishment owned by the Government.

The population of Charlestown is 28,323.

In the centre of the city stands Breed's Hill, or, as it is more commonly called, Bunker Hill, the scene of the battle of the 17th of June, 1775. The site of the old American redoubt is enclosed with a handsome iron railing, and marked by a magnificent shaft of granite 220 feet high, 31 feet square at the base, and 15 at the top. It is ascended by means of an inner winding stairway, which leads to a chamber immediately at the top. In this chamber are two old cannon, which, with two others, constituted all the artillery owned by the Americans at the beginning of the Revolution. The corner stone of this monument was laid by Lafayette, on the 17th of June, 1825, in presence of an immense concourse of citizens.



BUNKER HILL MONUMENT.

The following is a description of the struggle which the shaft commemorates :

After the affair of Lexington and Concord, on the 19th of April, 1775, the people, animated by one common impulse, flew to arms in every direction. The husbandman changed his ploughshare for a musket; and about 15,000 men, 10,000 from Massachusetts, and the remainder from New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, assembled under General Ward in the environs of Boston, then occupied by 10,000 highly disciplined and well equipped British troops, under the command of Generals Gage, Howe, Clinton, Burgoyne, Pigot and others.

Fearing an intention, on the part of the British, to occupy the important heights at Charlestown and Dorchester, which would enable them to command the surrounding country, Colonel Prescott was detached, by his own desire, from the American camp at Cambridge, on the evening of the 16th of June, 1775, with about 1000 militia, mostly of Massachusetts, including 120 men of Putnam's regiment from Connecticut, and one artillery company, to Bunker Hill, with a view to occupy and fortify that post. At this hill the detachment made a short halt, but concluded to advance still nearer the British, and accordingly took possession of Breed's Hill, a position which commanded the whole inner harbor of Boston. Here, about midnight, they commenced throwing up a redoubt, which they completed, notwithstanding every possible effort from the British ships and batteries to prevent them, about noon the next day.

So silently had the operations been conducted through the night, that the British had not the most distant notice of the design of the Americans, until day-break presented to their view the half-formed battery and daring stand made against them. A dreadful cannonade, accompanied with shells, was immediately commenced from the British battery at Copps' Hill, and the ships of war and floating batteries stationed in Charles River.

The break of day, on the 17th of June, 1775, presented a scene, which, for daring and firmness, could never be surpassed; 1000 unexperienced militia, in the attire of their various avocations, without discipline, almost without artillery and bayonets, scantily supplied with ammunition, and wholly destitute of provisions, defying the power of the formidable British fleet and army, determined to maintain the liberty of their soil, or moisten that soil with their blood.

Without aid, however, from the main body of the army, it seemed impossible to maintain their position; the men having been without sleep, toiling through the night, and destitute of the necessary food required by nature, had become nearly exhausted. Representations were repeatedly made, through the morning, to headquarters, of the necessity of reinforcements and supplies. Major Brooks, the late revered Governor of Massachusetts, who commanded a battalion of minute-men at Concord, set out for Cambridge about 9 o'clock on foot (it being impossible to procure a horse), soliciting succor; but as there were two other points exposed to the British, Roxbury and Cambridge, then the headquarters, at which place all the little stores of the army were collected, and the loss of which would be incalculable at that moment, great fears were entertained lest they should march over the neck to Roxbury, and attack the camp there, or pass over the bay in boats (there being at that time no artificial avenue to connect Boston with the adjacent country), attack the headquarters, and destroy the stores: it was therefore deemed impossible to afford any reinforcement to Charlestown Heights, till the movements of the British rendered evidence of their intention certain.

The fire from the Glasgow frigate and two floating batteries in Charles River, were wholly directed with a view to prevent any communication across the isthmus that connects Charlestown with the mainland, which kept up a continued shower of missiles, and rendered the communication truly dangerous to those who should attempt it. When the intention of the British to attack the heights of Charlestown became apparent, the remainder of Putnam's regiment, Colonel Gardiner's regiment (both of which, as to numbers, were very imperfect), and some New Hampshire militia, marched, notwithstanding the heavy fire, across the neck, for Charlestown Heights, where they arrived, much fatigued, just after the British had moved to the first attack.

The British commenced crossing the troops from Boston about 12 o'clock, and landed at Morton's Point, southeast from Breed's Hill. At 2 o'clock, from the best accounts that can be obtained, they landed between 3000 and 4000 men, under the immediate command of General Howe, and formed, in apparently invincible order, at the base of the hill.

The position of the Americans, at this time, was a redoubt on the summit of the height, of about 8 rods square, and a breastwork extending, on the left of it, about 70 feet down the eastern declivity of the hill. This redoubt and breastwork was commanded by Prescott in person, who had superintended its construction, and who occupied it with the Massachusetts militia of his detachment, and a part of Little's regiment, which had arrived about 1 o'clock. They were dreadfully deficient in equipments and ammunition, had been toiling incessantly for many

hours, and, it is said by some accounts, even then were destitute of provisions. A little to the eastward of the redoubt, and northerly to the rear of it, was a rail fence, extending almost to Mystic River; to this fence another had been added during the night and forenoon, and some newly mown grass thrown against them, to afford something like a cover to the troops. At this fence the 120 Connecticut militia were posted.

The movements of the British made it evident their intention was to march a strong column along the margin of the Mystic, and turn the redoubt on the north, while another column attacked it in front; accordingly, to prevent this design, a large force became necessary at the breastwork and rail fence. The whole of the reinforcements that arrived, amounting in all to 800 or 1000 men, were ordered to this point by General Putnam, who had been extremely active throughout the night and morning, and had accompanied the expedition.

At this moment thousands of persons of both sexes had collected on the church steeples, Beacon Hill, house tops, and every place in Boston and its neighborhood, where a view of the battle ground could be obtained, viewing, with painful anxiety, the movements of the combatants; wondering, yet admiring the bold stand of the Americans, and trembling at the thoughts of the formidable army marshalled in array against them.

Before 3 o'clock the British formed, in two columns, for the attack; one column, as had been anticipated, moved along the Mystic River, with the intention of taking the redoubt in the rear, while the other advanced up the ascent directly in front of the redoubt, where Prescott was ready to receive them. General Warren, President of the Provincial Congress and of the Committee of Safety, who had been appointed but a few days before a major-general of the Massachusetts troops, had volunteered on the occasion as a private soldier, and was in the redoubt with a musket, animating the men by his influence and example to the most daring determination.

Orders were given to the Americans to reserve their fire till the enemy advanced sufficiently near to make their aim certain. Several volleys were fired by the British with but little success; and so long a time had elapsed, and the British allowed to advance so near the Americans without their fire being returned, that a doubt arose whether or not the latter intended to give battle; but the fatal moment soon arrived: when the British had advanced to within about 8 rods, a sheet of fire was poured upon them, and continued a short time with such deadly effect that hundreds of the assailants lay weltering in their blood, and the remainder retreated in dismay to the point where they had first landed.

From daylight to the time of the British advancing on the works, an incessant fire had been kept up on the Americans from the ships and batteries—this fire was now renewed with increased vigor.

After a short time, the British officers had succeeded in rallying their men, and again advanced, in the same order as before, to the attack. Thinking to divert the attention of the Americans, the town of Charlestown, consisting of 500 wooden buildings, was now set on fire by the British; the roar of the flames, the crashing of falling timber, the awful appearance of desolation presented, the dreadful shrieks of the dying and wounded in the last attack, added to the knowledge of the formidable force advancing against them, combined to form a scene apparently too much for men bred in the quiet retirement of domestic life to sustain. But the stillness of death reigned within the American works, and nought could be seen but the deadly presented weapon, ready to hurl fresh destruction

on the assailants. The fire of the Americans was again reserved till the British came still nearer than before, when the same unerring aim was taken, and the British shrunk, terrified, from before its fatal effects, flying, completely routed a second time, to the banks of the river, and leaving, as before, the field strewn with their wounded and their dead.

Again the ships and batteries renewed their fire, and kept a continual shower of balls on the works. Notwithstanding every exertion, the British officers found it impossible to rally the men for a third attack; one-third of their comrades had fallen; and finally it was not till a reinforcement of more than 1000 fresh troops, with a strong park of artillery, had joined them from Boston, that they could be induced to form anew.

In the mean time every effort was made on the part of the Americans to resist a third attack; General Putnam rode, notwithstanding the heavy fire of the ships and batteries, several times across the neck, to induce the militia to advance; but it was only a few of the resolute and brave who would encounter the storm. The British receiving reinforcements from their formidable main body—the town of Charlestown presenting one wide scene of destruction—the probability the Americans must shortly retreat—the shower of balls pouring over the neck—presented obstacles too appalling for raw troops to sustain, and embodied too much danger to allow them to encounter. Yet, notwithstanding all this, the Americans on the heights were elated with their success, and waited with coolness and determination the now formidable advance of the enemy.

Once more the British, aided by their reinforcements, advanced to the attack, but with great skill and caution; their artillery was planted on the eastern declivity of the hill, between the rail fence and the breastwork, where it was directed along the line of the Americans, stationed at the latter place, and against the gateway on the northeastern corner of the redoubt; at the same time they attacked the redoubt on the southeastern and southwestern sides, and entered it with fixed bayonets. The slaughter on their advancing was great; but the Americans, not having bayonets to meet them on equal terms, and their powder being exhausted, now slowly retreated, opposing and extricating themselves from the British with the butts of their pieces.

The column that advanced against the rail fence was received in the most dauntless manner. The Americans fought with spirit and heroism that could not be surpassed, and, had their ammunition held out, would have secured to themselves a third time the palm of victory; as it was, they effectually prevented the enemy from accomplishing his purpose, which was to turn their flank, and cut the whole of the Americans off; but having become perfectly exhausted, this body of the Americans also slowly retired, retreating in much better order than could possibly have been expected from undisciplined troops, and those in the redoubt having extricated themselves from the host of bayonets by which they had been surrounded.

The British followed the Americans to Bunker Hill, but some fresh militia at this moment coming up to the aid of the latter, covered their retreat. The Americans crossed Charlestown neck about 7 o'clock, having in the last twenty hours performed deeds which seemed almost impossible. Some of them proceeded to Cambridge, and others posted themselves quietly on Winter and Prospect hills.

From the most accurate statements that can be found, it appears the British must have had nearly 5000 soldiers in the battle; between 3000 and 4000 having

first landed, and the reënforcement amounting to over 1000. The Americans, throughout the whole day, did not have 2000 men on the field.

The slaughter on the side of the British was immense, having had nearly 1500 killed and wounded, 1200 of whom were either killed or mortally wounded ; the Americans about 400.

Had the commanders at Charlestown Heights become terrified on being cut off from the main body and supplies, and surrendered their army, or even retreated before they did, from the terrific force that opposed them, where would now have been that ornament and example to the world, the Independence of the United States ? When it was found that no reënforcements were to be allowed them, the most sanguine man on that field could not have even indulged a hope of success, but all determined to deserve it ; and although they did not obtain a victory, their example was the cause of a great many. The first attempt on the commencement of a war is held up, by one party or the other, as an example to those that succeed it, and a victory or defeat, though not, perhaps, of any great magnitude in itself, is most powerful and important in its effects. Had such conduct as was here exhibited been in any degree imitated by the immediate commander in the first military onset in the last war, how truly different a result would have been effected, from the fatal one that terminated that unfortunate expedition.

From the immense superiority of the British, at this stage of the war, having a large army of highly disciplined and well equipped troops, and the Americans possessing but few other munitions or weapons of war, and but little more discipline, than what each man possessed when he threw aside his plough and took the gun that he had kept for pastime or for profit, but now to be employed for a different purpose, from off the hooks that held it,—perhaps it would have been in their power, by pursuing the Americans to Cambridge, and destroying the few stores that had been collected there, to inflict a blow which could never have been recovered from ; but they were completely terrified. The awful lesson they had just received filled them with horror ; and the blood of 1500 of their companions, who fell on that day, presented to them a warning which they could never forget. From the battle of Bunker Hill sprung the protection and the vigor that nurtured the tree of liberty, and to it, in all probability, may be ascribed our independence and glory.

The name of the first martyr that gave his life for the good of his country on that day, in the importance of the moment, was lost ; else a monument, in connection with the gallant Warren, should be raised to his memory. The manner of his death was thus related by Colonel Prescott :

“The first man who fell in the battle of Bunker Hill was killed by a cannon ball which struck his head. He was so near me that my clothes were besmeared with his blood and brains, which I wiped off, in some degree, with a handful of fresh earth. The sight was so shocking to many of the men, that they left their posts and ran to view him. I ordered them back, but in vain. I then ordered him to be buried instantly. A subaltern officer expressed surprise that I should allow him to be buried without having prayers said ; I replied, this is the first man that has been killed, and the only one that will be buried to-day. I put him out of sight that the men may be kept in their places. God only knows who, or how many of us, will fall before it is over. To your post, my good fellow, and let each man do his duty.”

The name of the patriot who thus fell is supposed to have been POLLARD, a young man belonging to Billerica. He was struck by a cannon ball, thrown from the line-of-battle ship Somerset.

CAMBRIDGE,

In Middlesex county, lies west-northwest of Boston, and is connected with it by two bridges. It is a beautiful city. The streets are broad, and are shaded with lofty elms, and the houses are mostly of wood, and stand back amidst a profusion of tasteful shrubbery. The corporate limits contain 24 churches, several banks, and an excellent hotel. There are a number of manufacturing establishments in the city, but it is principally occupied with private residences. The population is 39,634.

Cambridge is the seat of Harvard University, one of the oldest and most important institutions of learning in the country. It is about three miles from Boston, and was founded in 1638, by the Rev. John Harvard. The University embraces, besides its collegiate department, schools of law, medicine, and theology. The buildings are 15 in number, and are all located in Cambridge, except the Medical School, which is in Boston. They are very handsome edifices, and are surrounded by tasteful grounds.

LOWELL,

In Middlesex county, is the second city in the State, and one of the most important manufacturing places in America. It is situated at the confluence of the Merrimac and Concord rivers, about 8 miles south of the New Hampshire line, and 25 miles northwest of Boston. The site is hilly, but the city is regularly laid out, and the streets are broad, are lighted with gas, and are traversed by a horse railway. Some of the buildings are handsome. The Court House is the principal edifice. The city contains 7 banks, 4 savings institutions, 22 churches, and 5 newspaper establishments. The population is 40,928.

As a manufacturing city, Lowell has no rival. Early in the present century some Newburyport merchants built a canal at this place as a means of floating lumber around Pawtucket Falls in the Merrimac River. In 1821, a party of Boston merchants bought up this canal and the adjoining lands, for the purpose of utilizing the immense water-power furnished by the falls. They enlarged the canal to a width of 60 feet and a depth of 8 feet, and constructed mill races and feeders. They then laid out the town, and offered mill sites and town lots for sale. Their venture met with such success, that in 1846 it became necessary to construct an additional canal, 100 feet wide, 16 feet deep, and with sides of mason work.

To-day, the town projected by them has no superior in its speciality. In 1864, there were 13 manufacturing corporations in Lowell, with an aggregate capital of \$13,850,000, engaged in operating 54 mills and factories. Previous to the war there were 12,384 operatives employed in these mills, divided as follows: males 3979, females 8405. Cotton and woollen goods, paper, cotton and paper machinery, locomotives, and machinists' tools are the principal products.

In 1862, the celebrated English writer, Anthony Trollope, visited Lowell and its mills. He gives the following as the result of his observations:

That which most surprises an English visitor, on going through the mills at Lowell, is the personal appearance of the men and women who work at them. As there are twice as many women as there are men, it is to them that the attention is chiefly called. They are not only better dressed, cleaner, and better mounted in every respect than the girls employed at manufactories in England, but they are so infinitely superior as to make a stranger immediately perceive that some very strong cause must have created the difference. We all know the class of young women whom we generally see serving behind counters in the shops of our larger cities. They are neat, well dressed, careful, especially about their hair, composed in their manner, and sometimes a little supercilious in the propriety of their demeanor. It is exactly the same class of young women that one sees in the factories at Lowell. They are not sallow, nor dirty, nor ragged, nor rough. They have about them no signs of want, or of low culture. Many of us also know the appearance of those girls who work in the factories in England; and I think it will be allowed that a second glance at them is not wanting to show that they are in every respect inferior to the young women who attend our shops. The matter, indeed, requires no argument. Any young woman at a shop would be insulted by being asked whether she had worked at a factory. The difference with regard to the men at Lowell is quite as strong, though not so striking. Workingmen do not show their status in the world by their outward appearance as readily as women; and, as I have said before, the number of the women greatly exceeded that of the men.

One would of course be disposed to say that the superior condition of the workers must have been occasioned by superior wages; and this, to a certain extent, has been the cause. But the higher payment is not the chief cause. Women's wages, including all that they receive at the Lowell factories, average about 14s. a week, which is, I take it, fully a third more than women can earn in Manchester, or did earn before the loss of the American cotton began to tell upon them. But if wages at Manchester were raised to the Lowell standard, the Manchester women would not be clothed, fed, cared for, and educated like the Lowell women. The fact is, that the workmen and the workwomen at Lowell are not exposed to the chances of an open labor market. They are taken in, as it were, to a philanthropical manufacturing college, and then looked after and regulated more as girls and lads at a great seminary, than as hands by whose industry profit is to be made out of capital. This is all very nice and pretty at Lowell, but I am afraid it could not be done at Manchester.

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Thus Lowell is the realization of a commercial Utopia. Of all the statements made in the little book which I have quoted, I cannot point out one which is exaggerated, much less false. I should not call the place elegant; in other respects I am disposed to stand by the book. Before I had made any inquiry into the cause of the apparent comfort, it struck me at once that some great effort at excellence was being made. I went into one of the discreet matrons' residences; and, perhaps, may give but an indifferent idea of her discretion, when I say that she allowed me to go into the bed-rooms. If you want to ascertain the inner ways or habits of life of any man, woman, or child, see, if it be practicable to do so, his or her bed-room. You will learn more by a minute's glance round that holy of holies, than by any conversation. Looking-glasses and such like, suspended dresses, and toilet-belongings, if taken without notice, cannot lie or even exaggerate. The discreet matron at first showed me rooms only prepared for use, for at the period of my visit Lowell was by no means full; but she soon became more intimate with me, and I went through the upper part of the house. My report must be altogether in her favor and in that of Lowell. Everything was cleanly, well ordered, and feminine. There was not a bed on which any woman need have hesitated to lay herself if occasion required it. I fear that this cannot be said of the lodgings of the manufacturing classes at Manchester. The boarders all take their meals together. As a rule, they have meat twice a day. Hot meat for dinner is with them as much a matter of course, or probably more so, than with any Englishman or woman who may read this book. For in the States of America regulations on this matter are much more rigid than with us. Cold meat is rarely seen, and to live a day without meat would be as great a privation as to pass a night without bed.

The rules for the guidance of these boarding-houses are very rigid. The houses themselves belong to the corporations, or different manufacturing establishments, and the tenants are altogether in the power of the managers. None but operatives are to be taken in. The tenants are answerable for improper conduct. The doors are to be closed at ten o'clock. Any boarders who do not attend divine worship are to be reported to the managers. The yards and walks are to be kept clean, and snow removed at once; and the inmates must be vaccinated, etc., etc. It is expressly stated by the Hamilton Company—and I believe by all the companies—that no one shall be employed who is habitually absent from public worship on Sunday, or who is known to be guilty of immorality. It is stated that the average wages of the women are two dollars, or eight shillings, a week, besides their board. I found when I was there that from three dollars to three and a half a week were paid to the women, of which they paid one dollar and twenty-five cents for their board. As this would not fully cover the expense of their keep, twenty-five cents a week for each was also paid to the boarding-house keepers by the mill agents. This substantially came to the same thing, as it left the two dollars a week, or eight shillings, with the girls over and above their cost of living. The board included washing, lights, food, bed, and attendance—leaving a surplus of eight shillings a week for clothes and saving. Now let me ask any one acquainted with Manchester and its operatives, whether that is not Utopia realized. Factory girls, for whom every comfort of life is secured, with 21*l.* a year over for saving and dress! One sees the failing, however, at a moment. It is Utopia. Any Lady Bountiful can tutor three or four peasants and make them luxuriously comfortable. But no Lady Bountiful can give luxurious comfort to half a dozen parishes. Lowell is now nearly 40 years old, and

contains but 40,000 inhabitants. From the very nature of its corporations it cannot spread itself. Chicago, which has grown out of nothing in a much shorter period, and which has no factories, has now 120,000 inhabitants. Lowell is a very wonderful place and shows what philanthropy can do; but I fear it also shows what philanthropy cannot do.

One cannot but be greatly struck by the spirit of philanthropy in which the system of Lowell was at first instituted. It may be presumed that men who put their money into such an undertaking did so with the object of commercial profit to themselves; but in this case that was not their first object. I think it may be taken for granted that when Messrs. Jackson and Lowell went about their task, their grand idea was to place factory work upon a respectable footing—to give employment in mills which should not be unhealthy, degrading, demoralizing, or hard in its circumstances. Throughout the Northern States of America the same feeling is to be seen. Good and thoughtful men have been active to spread education, to maintain health, to make work compatible with comfort and personal dignity, and to divest the ordinary lot of man of the sting of that curse which was supposed to be uttered when our first father was ordered to eat his bread in the sweat of his brow. One is driven to contrast this feeling, of which on all sides one sees such ample testimony, with that sharp desire for profit, that anxiety to do a stroke of trade at every turn, that acknowledged necessity of being smart, which we must own is quite as general as the nobler propensity. I believe that both phases of commercial activity may be attributed to the same characteristic. Men in trade in America are not more covetous than tradesmen in England, nor probably are they more generous or philanthropical. But that which they do, they are more anxious to do thoroughly and quickly. They desire that every turn taken shall be a great turn—or at any rate that it shall be as great as possible. They go ahead either for bad or good with all the energy they have. In the institutions at Lowell I think we may allow that the good has very much prevailed.

I went over two of the mills, those of the Merrimac corporation and of the Massachusetts. At the former the printing establishment only was at work; the cotton mills were closed. I hardly know whether it will interest any one to learn that something under half a million yards of calico are here printed annually. At the Lowell Bleachery fifteen million yards are dyed annually. The Merrimac Cotton Mills were stopped, and so had the other mills at Lowell been stopped, till some short time before my visit. Trade had been bad, and there had of course been a lack of cotton. I was assured that no severe suffering had been created by this stoppage. The greater number of hands had returned into the country—to the farms from whence they had come; and though a discontinuance of work and wages had of course produced hardship, there had been no actual privation—no hunger and want. Those of the work-people who had no homes out of Lowell to which to betake themselves, and no means at Lowell of living, had received relief before real suffering had begun. I was assured, with something of a smile of contempt at the question, that there had been nothing like hunger. But, as I said before, visitors always see a great deal of rose color, and should endeavor to allay the brilliancy of the tint with the proper amount of human shading. But do not let any visitor mix in the browns with too heavy a hand!

SPRINGFIELD,

In Hampden county, on the banks of the Connecticut River, 98 miles southwest of Boston, and 26 miles north of Hartford, Conn., is the largest city in Western Massachusetts. It is handsomely built, and is one of the most attractive cities in New England. The principal thoroughfare, Main street, is nearly 3 miles long. The city contains many fine buildings, 12 or 13 churches, 8 or 9 banks, several good hotels, and 5 newspaper establishments. It is lighted with gas, and supplied with water. The Connecticut is navigable to this place during the season of navigation. Four lines of railway centre here, and have added very much to the prosperity of the city.

The United States Arsenal is one of the principal features of the place, and the most important establishment belonging to the Government. About 2800 hands are employed in the various departments of the Arsenal. The buildings are principally of brick, and are arranged around a square of 20 acres. They are very handsome, and being situated on rising ground, command a fine view of the city and surrounding country.

Springfield is actively engaged in manufactures. Paper, iron goods, locomotives, railroad cars, machinery, pistols, and woollen goods, are the principal articles. The population is 26,703.

Taunton, in Bristol county, contains 18,629 inhabitants. *Fall River*, in the same county, contains 26,786 inhabitants. Both are important manufacturing cities. *Salem*, in Essex county, has a fine harbor, and is a city of some commercial importance. It has a population of 24,117, and is noted as the scene of the famous witchcraft delusion. *Plymouth*, in the county of the same name, is extensively engaged in manufactures and the fisheries. It is the oldest town in New England, and is the place where the Pilgrim Fathers first landed after their voyage from England.

MISCELLANIES.

ARRIVAL OF THE PILGRIMS AT CAPE COD.

On the 10th of November, 1620, the *Mayflower*, with her precious freight of emigrants, reached the harbor of Cape Cod. The charter which they had brought with them from England, gave them permission to settle within the dominions of the South Virginia Company, and was worthless in the region in which they had arrived. In this situation they determined to take the matter into their own hands. A government was organized, a covenant drawn up and signed by all on board, and John Carver was elected Governor.

Government having been thus regularly established, on a truly republican principle, sixteen armed men were sent on shore, as soon as the weather would permit, to fetch wood and make discoveries. They returned at night with a boat load of juniper wood, and made report "that they found the land to be a narrow neck, having the harbor on one side, and the ocean on the other; that the ground consisted of sandhills, like the Downs in Holland; that in some places the soil was black earth 'a spit's depth;' that the trees were oak, pine, sassafras, juniper, birch, holly, ash, and walnut; that the forest was open and without underwood; that no inhabitants, houses, nor fresh water were to be seen." This account was as much as could be collected in one Saturday's afternoon. The next day they rested.

While they lay in this harbor, during the space of five weeks, they saw great flocks of sea-fowl and whales every day playing about them. The master and mate, who had been acquainted with the fisheries in the northern seas of Europe, supposed that they might in that time have made oil to the value of £3000 or £4000. It was too late in the season for cod; and, indeed, they caught none but small fish near the shore, and shellfish. The margin of the sea was so shallow, that they were obliged to wade ashore, and the weather being severe, many of them took colds and coughs, which in the course of the winter proved mortal.

On Monday, the 13th of November, the women went ashore under guard to wash their clothes, and the men were impatient for a farther discovery. The shallop, which had been cut down and stowed between decks, needed repairing, in which 17 days were employed. While this was doing, they proposed that excursions might be made on foot. Much caution was necessary in an enterprise of this kind, in a new and savage country. After consultation and preparation, 16 men were equipped with musket and ammunition, sword and corslet, under the command of Captain Miles Standish, who had William Bradford, Stephen Hopkins, and Edward Tilly for his council of war. After many instructions given, they were rather permitted than ordered to go, and the time of their absence was limited to two days.

When they had travelled one mile by the shore, they discovered five or six of the natives, who, on sight of them, fled. They attempted to pursue, and, lighting on their tracks, followed them till night; but the thickets through which they had to pass, the weight of their armor, and the debility after a long voyage, made them an unequal match, in point of travelling, to these nimble sons of nature. They rested at length by a spring, which afforded them the first refreshing draught of American water.

The discoveries made in this march were few, but novel and amusing. In one place they found a deer trap, made by the bending of a young tree to the earth, with a noose under ground covered with acorns. Mr. Bradford's foot was caught in the trap, from which his companions disengaged him, and they were all entertained with the ingenuity of the device. In another place they came to an Indian burying-ground, and in one of the graves they found a mortar, an earthen pot, a bow and arrows, and other implements, all which they very carefully replaced, because they would not be guilty of violating the repositories of the dead. But when they found a cellar, carefully lined with bark and covered with a heap of sand, in which about four bushels of seed-corn in ears were well secured, after reasoning on the morality of the action, they took as much of the corn as they could carry, intending, when they should find the owners, to pay them to their satisfaction. On the third day they arrived, weary and welcome, where the ship

lay, and delivered their corn into the common store. The company resolved to keep it for seed, and to pay the natives the full value when they should have an opportunity.

When the shallop was repaired and rigged, 24 of the company ventured on a second excursion to the same place, to make a farther discovery, having Captain Jones for their commander, with 10 of his seamen and the ship's long-boat. The wind being high and the sea rough, the shallop came to anchor under the land, while part of the company waded on shore from the long-boat, and travelled, as they supposed, six or seven miles, having directed the shallop to follow them the next morning. The weather was very cold, with snow, and the people, having no shelter, took such colds as afterwards proved fatal to many.

THE FIRST SABBATH IN NEW ENGLAND.

The 10th of December, 1620, was the first Christian Sabbath in New England. The "Mayflower," a name now immortal, had crossed the ocean. It had borne its hundred passengers over the vast deep, and after a perilous voyage, it had reached the bleak shores of New England in the beginning of winter. The spot which was to furnish a home and a burial-place, was now to be selected. The shallop was unshipped, but needed repairs, and 16 weary days elapsed before it was ready for service. Amidst ice and snow, it was then sent out, with some half a dozen Pilgrims, to find a suitable place where to land. The spray of the sea, says the historian, froze on them, and made their clothes like coats of iron. Five days they wandered about, searching in vain for a suitable landing-place. A storm came on, the snow and rain fell; the sea swelled; the rudder broke; the mast and the sail fell overboard. In this storm and cold, without a tent, a house, or the shelter of a rock, the Christian Sabbath approached—the day which they regarded as holy unto God—a day on which they were not to "do any work." What should be done? As the evening before the Sabbath drew on, they pushed over the surf, entered a fair sound, sheltered themselves under the lee of a rise of land, kindled a fire, and on that island they spent the day in the solemn worship of their Maker. On the next day their feet touched the rock now sacred as the place of the landing of the Pilgrims. Nothing more strikingly marks the character of this people, than this act. The whole scene—the cold winter—the raging sea—the driving storm—the houseless, homeless island—the families of wives and children in the distance, weary with their voyage and impatient to land—and yet, the sacred observance of a day which they kept from *principle*, and not from mere feeling, or because it was a form of religion, shows how deeply imbedded true religion is in the soul, and how little it is affected by surrounding difficulties.

THE FIRST CRIMES IN NEW ENGLAND.

The first offence punished in the colony was that of John Billington, who was charged with contempt of the captain's lawful commands, while on board the Mayflower. He was tried by the whole company, and was sentenced to have his neck and heels tied together; but on humbling himself, and craving pardon, he was released. This same Billington, however, in 1630, waylaid and murdered one John Newcomen, for some affront, and was tried and executed in October of that year. Governor Bradford says: "We took all due means about his trial; he was

found guilty, both by grand and petit jury; and we took advice of Mr. Winthrop and others, the ablest gentlemen in the Massachusetts Bay, who all concurred with us, that he ought to die, and the land be purged from blood."

The first duel and second offence that took place in the colony was between two servants of Stephen Hopkins. They fought with sword and dagger, and were both slightly wounded. They were arraigned for the offence, on the 18th June, 1621, before the Governor and company for trial, and were sentenced to have their heads and feet tied together, and to remain in that position for 24 hours. After an hour's endurance of this novel punishment, these men of valor begged for a release, and the Governor set them at liberty.

THE SALEM WITCHCRAFT.

[*From Governor Hutchinson's History of Massachusetts.*]

The great noise which the New England witchcrafts made throughout the English dominions, proceeded more from the general panic with which all sorts of persons were seized, and an expectation that the contagion would spread to all parts of the country, than from the number of persons who were executed, more having been put to death in a single county in England, in a short space of time, than have suffered in all New England from the first settlement until the present time. Fifteen years had passed, before we find any mention of witchcraft among the English colonists. The Indians were supposed to be worshippers of the Devil, and their powows to be wizards. The first suspicion of witchcraft, among the English, was about the year 1645; at Springfield, upon Connecticut River, several persons were supposed to be under an evil hand, and among the rest two of the minister's children. Great pains were taken to prove the facts upon several persons charged with the crime, but either the nature of the evidence was not satisfactory, or the fraud was suspected, and so no person was convicted until the year 1650, when a poor wretch, Mary Oliver, probably weary of her life from the general reputation of being a witch, after long examination was brought to confession of her guilt, but I do not find that she was executed. Whilst this inquiry was making, Margaret Jones was executed at Charlestown; and Mr. Hale mentions a woman at Dorchester, and another at Cambridge about the same time, who all at their death asserted their innocence. Soon after, Hugh Parsons was tried at Springfield and escaped death. In 1655, Mrs. Hibbins, the assistant's widow, was hanged at Boston. In 1662, at Hartford in Connecticut (about 30 miles from Springfield, upon the same river), one Ann Cole, a young woman who lived next door to a Dutch family, and, no doubt, had learned something of the language, was supposed to be possessed with demons, who sometimes spake Dutch and sometimes English, and sometimes a language which nobody understood, and who held a conference with one another. Several ministers, who were present, took down the conference in writing, and the names of several persons, mentioned in the course of the conference, as actors or bearing parts in it; particularly a woman, then in prison upon suspicion of witchcraft, one Greensmith, who upon examination confessed and appeared to be surprised at the discovery. She owned that she and the others named had been familiar with a demon, who had carnal knowledge of her, and although she had not made a formal covenant, yet she had promised to be ready at his call, and was to have had a high frolic at Christmas, when the agreement was to have been signed. Upon this confession she was

executed, and two more of the company were condemned at the same time. In 1669, Susanna Martin, of Salisbury, was bound over to the court, upon suspicion of witchcraft, but escaped at that time.

In 1671, Elizabeth Knap, another *ventriloqua*, alarmed the people of Groton in much the same manner as Ann Cole had done those of Hartford; but her demon was not so cunning, for instead of confining himself to old women, he railed at the good minister of the town and other persons of good character, and the people could not then be prevailed on to believe him, but believed the girl, when she confessed she had been deluded, and that the devil had tormented her in the shape of good persons; so she escaped the punishment due to her fraud and imposture.

In 1673, Eunice Cole of Hampton was tried, and the jury found her not legally guilty, but that there were strong grounds to suspect her of familiarity with the devil.

In 1679, William Morse's house, at Newbury, was troubled with the throwing of bricks, stones, etc., and a boy, of the family, was supposed to be bewitched, who accused one of the neighbors; and in 1682, the house of George Walton, a quaker, at Portsmouth, and another house at Salmon-falls (both in New Hampshire), were attacked after the same manner.

In 1683, the demons removed to Connecticut River again, where one Desborough's house was molested by an invisible hand, and a fire kindled, nobody knew how, which burnt up great part of his estate; and in 1684, Philip Smith, a judge of the court, a military officer and a representative of the town of Hadley, upon the same river (a hypochondriac person), fancied himself under an evil hand, and suspected a woman, one of his neighbors, and languished and pined away, and was generally supposed to be bewitched to death. While he lay ill, a number of brisk lads tried an experiment upon the old woman. Having dragged her out of her house, they hung her up until she was near dead, let her down, rolled her some time in the snow, and at last buried her in it and there left her, but it happened that she survived, and the melancholy man died.

Notwithstanding these frequent instances of supposed witchcrafts, none had suffered for near 30 years, in the Massachusetts colony. The execution of the assistant or councillor's widow in 1655, was disapproved of by many principal persons, and it is not unlikely that her death saved the lives of many other inferior persons. But in 1685, a very circumstantial account of all or most of the cases I have mentioned, was published, and many arguments were brought to convince the country that they were no delusions or impostures, but the effects of a familiarity between the devil and such as he found fit for his instruments; and in 1687 or 1688, began a more alarming instance than any which had preceded it. Four of the children of John Goodwin, a grave man and a good liver, at the north part of Boston, were generally believed to be bewitched. I have often heard persons, who were in the neighborhood, speak of the great consternation it occasioned. The children were all remarkable for ingenuity of temper, had been religiously educated and were thought to be without guile. The eldest was a girl of 13 or 14 years. She had charged a laundress with taking away some of the family linen. The mother of the laundress was one of the wild Irish, of bad character, and gave the girl harsh language; soon after which she fell into fits, which were said to have something diabolical in them. One of her sisters and two brothers followed her example, and it is said, were tormented in the same part of their bodies at the same time, although kept in separate apartments,

and ignorant of one another's complaints. One or two things were said to be very remarkable ; all their complaints were in the day time, and they slept comfortably all night ; they were struck dead at the sight of the Assembly's Catechism, Cotton's Milk for Babes, and some other good books, but could read in Oxford jests, popish and quaker books, and the common prayer, without any difficulty. Is it possible the mind of man should be capable of such strong prejudices as that a suspicion of fraud should not immediately arise ? But attachments to modes and forms in religion had such force, that some of these circumstances seem rather to have confirmed the credit of the children. Sometimes they would be deaf, then dumb, then blind ; and sometimes all these disorders together would come upon them. Their tongues would be drawn down their throats, then pulled out upon their chins. Their jaws, necks, shoulders, elbows and all their joints would appear to be dislocated, and they would make most piteous outcries of burnings, of being cut with knives, beat, etc., and the marks of wounds were afterwards to be seen. The ministers of Boston and Charlestown kept a day of fasting and prayer at the troubled house ; after which, the youngest child made no more complaints. The others persevered, and the magistrates then interposed, and the old woman was apprehended, but upon examination would neither confess nor deny, and appeared to be disordered in her senses. Upon the report of physicians that she was *compos mentis*, she was executed, declaring at her death the children should not be relieved. The eldest, after this, was taken into a minister's family, where, at first, she behaved orderly, but, after some time, suddenly fell into her fits. The account of her affliction is in print ; some things are mentioned as extraordinary, which tumblers are every day taught to perform ; others seem more than natural, but it was a time of great credulity. The children returned to their ordinary behavior, lived to adult age, made profession of religion, and the affliction they had been under they publicly declared to be one motive to it. One of them I knew many years after. She had the character of a very sober virtuous woman, and never made any acknowledgment of fraud in this transaction. The printed account was published with a preface by Mr. Baxter, who says, "*the evidence is so convincing, that he must be a very obdurate Sadducee who will not believe.*" It obtained credit sufficient together with other preparatives, to dispose the whole country to be easily imposed upon by the more extensive and more tragical scene, which was presently after acted at Salem and other parts of the county of Essex. Not many years before, Glanvil published his witch stories in England ; Perkins and other nonconformists were earlier ; but the great authority was that of Sir Matthew Hale, revered in New England, not only for his knowledge in the law, but for his gravity and piety. The trial of the witches in Suffolk was published in 1684. All these books were in New England, and the conformity between the behavior of Goodwin's children and most of the supposed bewitched at Salem, and the behavior of those in England, is so exact, as to leave no room to doubt the stories had been read by the New England persons themselves, or had been told to them by others who had read them. Indeed, this conformity, instead of giving suspicion, was urged in confirmation of the truth of both ; the Old England demons and the New being so much alike. The court justified themselves from books of law, and the authorities of Keble, Dalton and other lawyers, then of the first character, who lay down rules of conviction, as absurd and dangerous as any which were practised in New England. The trial of Richard Hatheway, the impostor, before Lord Chief Justice Holt, was 10 or 12 years after. This was a great discouragement to prosecutions in England

for witchcraft, but an effectual stop was not put to them, until the Act of Parliament in the reign of his late Majesty. Even this has not wholly cured the common people, and we hear of old women ducked and cruelly murdered within these last twenty years. Reproach, then, for hanging witches, although it has been often cast upon the people of New England, by those of Old, yet it must have been done with an ill grace. The people of New England were of a grave cast, and had long been disposed to give a serious solemn construction even to common events in providence; but in Old England, the reign of Charles II. was as remarkable for gaiety as any whatsoever, and for scepticism and infidelity, as any which preceded it.

Sir William Phips, the governor, upon his arrival, fell in with the opinion prevailing. Mr. Stoughton, the lieutenant-governor, upon whose judgment great stress was laid, had taken up this notion, that although the devil might appear in the shape of a guilty person, yet he would never be permitted to assume the shape of an innocent person. This opinion, at first, was generally received. Some of the most religious women who were accused, when they saw the appearance of distress and torture in their accusers, and heard their solemn declarations, that they saw the shapes or spectres of the accused afflicting them, persuaded themselves they were witches, and that the devil, some how or other, although they could not remember how or when, had taken possession of their evil hearts and obtained some sort of assent to his afflicting in their shapes; and thereupon they thought they might be justified in confessing themselves guilty.

It seems, at this day, with some people, perhaps but few, to be the question whether the accused or the afflicted were under a preternatural or diabolical possession, rather than whether the afflicted were under bodily distempers, or altogether guilty of fraud and imposture.

As many of the original examinations have fallen into my hands, it may be of service to represent this affair in a more full and impartial light than it has yet appeared to the world.

In February, 1691-2, a daughter and a niece of Mr. Parris, the minister of Salem village, girls of ten or eleven years of age, and two other girls in the neighborhood, made the same sort of complaints as Goodwin's children had made, two or three years before. The physicians, having no other way of accounting for the disorder, pronounced them bewitched. An Indian woman, who was brought into the country from New Spain, and then living with Mr. Parris, tried some experiments which she pretended to be used in her own country, in order to find out the witch. This coming to the children's knowledge, they cried out upon the poor Indian as appearing to them, pinching, pricking, and tormenting them; and fell into fits. Tituba, the Indian, acknowledged that she had learned how to find out a witch, but denied that she was one herself. Several private fasts were kept at the minister's house, and several, more public, by the whole village, and then a general fast through the colony, to seek to God to rebuke Satan, etc. So much notice taken of the children, together with the pity and compassion expressed by those who visited them, not only tended to confirm them in their design, but to draw others into the like. Accordingly, the number of the complainants soon increased, and among them there were two or three women, and some girls old enough for witnesses. These had their fits too, and, when in them, cried out, not only against Tituba, but against Sarah Osburn, a melancholy distracted old woman, and Sarah Good, another old woman who was bedrid. Tituba, at length, confessed herself a witch, and that the two old women

were her confederates ; and they were all committed to prison ; and Tituba, upon search, was found to have scars upon her back which were called the devil's mark, but might as well have been supposed those of her Spanish master. This commitment was on the 1st of March. About three weeks after, two other women, of good characters and church members, Corey and Nurse, were complained of and brought upon their examination ; when these children fell into fits, and the mother of one of them, and wife of Thomas Putnam, joined with the children and complained of Nurse as tormenting her ; and made most terrible shrieks, to the amazement of all the neighborhood. The old women denied everything ; but were sent to prison ; and such was the infatuation, that a child of Sarah Good, about four or five years old, was committed also, being charged with biting some of the afflicted, who showed the print of small teeth on their arms. On April 3d Mr. Parris took for his text, "*Have not I chosen you twelve, and one of you is a devil.*" Sarah Cloyse, supposing it to be occasioned by Nurse's case, who was her sister, went out of the meeting. She was, presently after, complained of for a witch, examined, and committed. Elizabeth Procter was charged about the same time : her husband, as every good husband would have done, accompanied her to her examination, but it cost the poor man his life. Some of the afflicted cried out upon him also, and they were both committed to prison.

Instead of suspecting and sifting the witnesses, and suffering them to be cross-examined, the authority, to say no more, were imprudent in making use of leading questions, and thereby putting words into their mouths or suffering others to do it. Mr. Parris was over-officious ; most of the examinations, although in the presence of one or more of the magistrates, were taken by him.

Governor Hutchinson, in the second volume of his History, introduces an examination of several of the accused, which is certified by John Hawthorne and John Corwin, *Assistants*, but owing to prescribed limits they are here omitted :

No wonder the whole country was in a consternation, when persons of sober lives and unblemished characters were committed to prison upon such sort of evidence. The most effectual way to prevent an accusation, was to become an accuser ; and accordingly the number of the afflicted increased every day, and the number of the accused in proportion, who in general persisted in their innocence ; but, being strongly urged to give glory to God by their confession, and intimation being given that this was the only way to save their lives, and their friends urging them to it, some were brought to own their guilt. The first confession upon the files is of Deliverance Hobbs, May 11th. 1692, being in prison. She owned everything she was required to do. The confessions multiplied the witches ; new companions were always mentioned, who were immediately sent for and examined. Thus more than a hundred women, many of them of fair characters and of the most reputable families, in the towns of Salem, Beverly, Andover, Billerica, etc., were apprehended, examined, and generally committed to prison. The confessions being much of the same tenor, one or two may serve for specimens :

"The examination and confession (8 Sept. 92,) of Mary Osgood, wife of Captain Osgood of Andover, taken before John Hawthorne and other their Majesties justices.

"She confesses, that about 11 years ago, when she was in a melancholy state and condition, she used to walk abroad in her orchard ; and upon a certain time

she saw the appearance of a cat, at the end of the house, which yet she thought was a real cat. However, at that time, it diverted her from praying to God, and instead thereof she prayed to the devil; about which time she made a covenant with the devil, who, as a black man, came to her and presented her a book, upon which she laid her finger and that left a red spot: and that upon her signing, the devil told her he was her God, and that she should serve and worship him, and, she believes, she consented to it. She says further, that about two years ago, she was carried through the air, in company with deacon Frye's wife, Ebenezer Baker's wife, and Goody Tyler, to five-mile pond, where she was baptized by the devil, who dipped her face in the water and made her renounce her former baptism, and told her she must be his, soul and body, forever, and that she must serve him, which she promised to do. She says, the renouncing her first baptism was after her first dipping, and that she was transported back again through the air, in company with the forenamed persons, in the same manner as she went, and believes they were carried upon a pole. *Q.* How many persons were upon the pole? *A.* As I said before (*viz.*, four persons and no more but whom she had named above). She confesses she has afflicted three persons, John Sawdy, Martha Sprague, and Rose Foster, and that she did it by pinching her bed clothes, and giving consent the devil should do it in her shape, and that the devil could not do it without her consent. She confesses the afflicting persons in the court, by the glance of her eye. She says, as she was coming down to Salem to be examined, she and the rest of the company with her stopped at Mr. Phillips' to refresh themselves, and the afflicted persons, being behind them upon the road, came up just as she was mounting again, and were then afflicted, and cried out upon her, so that she was forced to stay until they were all past, and said she only looked that way towards them. *Q.* Do you know the devil can take the shape of an innocent person and afflict? *A.* I believe he cannot. *Q.* Who taught you this way of witchcraft? *A.* Satan (and that he promised her abundance of satisfaction and quietness in her future state, but never performed anything; and that she has lived more miserably and more discontented since, than ever before). She confesses further, that she herself, in company with Goody Parker, Goody Tyler, and Goody Dean, had a meeting at Moses Tyler's house, last Monday night, to afflict, and that she and Goody Dean carried the shape of Mr. Dean, the minister, between them, to make persons believe that Mr. Dean afflicted. *Q.* What hindered you from accomplishing what you intended? *A.* The Lord would not suffer it so to be, that the devil should afflict in an innocent person's shape. *Q.* Have you been at any other witch meetings? *A.* I know nothing thereof, as I shall answer in the presence of God and his people; (but said, that the black man stood before her, and told her that what she had confessed was a lie; notwithstanding, she said that what she had confessed was true, and thereto put her hand). Her husband being present, was asked if he judged his wife to be any way discomposed. He answered, that having lived with her so long, he doth not judge her to be any ways discomposed, but has cause to believe what she has said is true. . . . When Mistress Osgood was first called, she afflicted Martha Sprague and Rose Foster, by the glance of her eyes, and recovered them out of their fits by the touch of her hand. Mary Lacey, Betty Johnson, and Hannah Post saw Mistress Osgood afflicting Sprague and Foster. . . . The said Hannah Post, and Mary Lacey, and Betty Johnson, jun., and Rose Foster and Mary Richardson were afflicted by Mistress Osgood, in the time of their examination, and recovered by her touching of their hands.

"I underwritten, being appointed by authority, to take this examination, do testify upon oath, taken in court, that this is a true copy of the substance of it to the best of my knowledge, 5 Jan., 1692-3. The within Mary Osgood was examined before their Majesties justices of the peace in Salem.

"Attest,

JOHN HIGGINSON, Just. Peace."

A miserable negro woman, charged by some of the girls with afflicting them, confessed, but was cunning enough to bring the greatest share of the guilt upon her mistress :

"Salem, Monday, July 4, 1692. The examination of Candy, a negro woman, before Bartholomew Gedney and John Hawthorne, Esqrs. Mr. Nicholas Noyes also present :

"Q. Candy, are you a witch? A. Candy no witch in her country. Candy's mother no witch. Candy no witch, Barbados. This country, mistress give Candy witch. Q. Did your mistress make you a witch in this country? A. Yes, in this country mistress give Candy witch. Q. What did your mistress do to make you a witch? A. Mistress bring book and pen and ink, make Candy write in it. Q. What did you write in it? A. She took a pen and ink, and upon a book or paper made a mark. Q. How did you afflict or hurt these folks, where are the puppets you did it with? She asked to go out of the room and she would show or tell; upon which she had liberty, one going with her, and she presently brought in two clouts, one with two knots tied in it, the other one; which being seen by Mary Warren, Deliverance Hobbs, and Abigail Hobbs, they were greatly affrighted and fell into violent fits, and all of them said that the black man and Mrs. Hawkes, and the negro stood by the puppets or rags and pinched them, and then they were afflicted, and when the knots were untied yet they continued as aforesaid. A bit of one of the rags being set on fire, the afflicted all said they were burned, and cried out dreadfully. The rags being put into water, two of the forenamed persons were in dreadful fits, almost choked, and the other was violently running down to the river, but was stopped.

"Attest,

JOHN HAWTHORNE, Just. Peace."

Mrs. Hawkes, the mistress, had no other way to save her life but to confess also.

The recantation of several persons in Andover will show in what manner they were brought to their confessions :

"We, whose names are underwritten, inhabitants of Andover; when as that horrible and tremendous judgment beginning at Salem village in the year 1692, by some called witchcraft, first breaking forth at Mr. Parris's house, several young persons, being seemingly afflicted, did accuse several persons for afflicting them, and many there believing it so to be, we being informed that if a person was sick, the afflicted person could tell what or who was the cause of that sickness: Joseph Ballard, of Andover, his wife being sick at the same time, he, either from himself or by the advice of others, fetched two of the persons called the afflicted persons, from Salem village to Andover, which was the beginning of that dreadful calamity that befell us in Andover, believing the said accusations to be true, sent for the said persons to come together to the meeting house in Andover, the afflicted persons being there. After Mr. Barnard had been at prayer, we were blindfolded, and our hands were laid upon the afflicted persons, they being in their fits and falling into their fits at our coming into their presence, as they

said ; and some led us and laid our hands upon them, and then they said they were well, and that we were guilty of afflicting them : whereupon we were all seized as prisoners, by a warrant from the justice of the peace, and forthwith carried to Salem. And, by reason of that sudden surprisal, we knowing ourselves altogether innocent of that crime, we were all exceedingly astonished and amazed, and consternated and affrighted even out of our reason ; and our nearest and dearest relations, seeing us in that dreadful condition, and knowing our great danger, apprehended there was no other way to save our lives, as the case was then circumstanced, but by our confessing ourselves to be such and such persons as the afflicted represented us to be, they, out of tenderness and pity, persuaded us to confess what we did confess. And indeed that confession, that it is said we made, was no other than what was suggested to us by some gentlemen, they telling us that we were witches, and they knew it, and we knew it, which made us think it was so ; and our understandings, our reason, our faculties, almost gone, we were not capable of judging of our condition ; as also the hard measures they used with us rendered us incapable of making our defence, but said anything and everything which they desired, and most of what we said was but, in effect, a consenting to what they said. Some time after, when we were better composed, they telling us what we had confessed, we did profess that we were innocent and ignorant of such things ; and we hearing that Samuel Wardwell had renounced his confession, and quickly after condemned and executed, some of us were told we were going after Wardwell.

MARY OSGOOD, DELIVERANCE DANE, SARAH WILSON,
MARY TILER, ABIGAIL BARKER, HANNAH TILER."

The testimonials to these persons' characters, by the principal inhabitants of Andover, will outweigh the credulity of the justices who committed them, or of the grand jury which found bills against them.

Although the number of prisoners had been increasing, from February until the beginning of June, yet there had been no trials. The charter was expected from day to day, and the new constitution of government to take place. Soon after its arrival, commissioners of oyer and terminer were appointed for the trial of witchcrafts. By the charter, the general assembly are to constitute courts of justice, and the governor with the advice of the council is to nominate and appoint judges, commissioners of oyer and terminer, etc., but whether the governor, with advice of council, can constitute a court of oyer and terminer, without authority for that purpose derived from the general assembly, has been made a question ; however, this, the most important court to the life of the subject which ever was held in the province, was constituted in no other manner. It was opened at Salem, the first week in June. Only one of the accused, Bridget Bishop, alias Oliver, was then brought to trial. She had been charged with witchcraft twenty years before. The accuser, upon his death-bed, confessed his own guilt in the accusation ; but an old woman, once charged with being a witch, is never afterwards wholly free from the accusation, and she being, besides, of a fractious temper, all the losses the neighbors met with in their cattle and poultry, and accidents in oversetting their carts, etc., were attributed to her spite against them, and now suffered to be testified against her. This evidence, together with the testimony of the afflicted, and of the confessors, what they had heard from the spectres and seen of her spectre, and an excrescence, called a teat, found upon her body, were deemed by court and jury plenary proof, and she was con-

victed, and on the 10th of June executed. The further trials were put off to the adjournment, the 30th of June.

At the first trial, there was no colony or provincial law against witchcraft in force. The statute of James the First must therefore have been considered as in force in the province, witchcraft not being an offence at common law. Before the adjournment, the old colony law, which makes witchcraft a capital offence, was revived, with the other local laws, as they were called, and made a law of the province.

At the adjournment, June 30, five women were brought upon trial, Sarah Good, Rebekah Nurse, Susannah Martin, Elizabeth How, and Sarah Wilder.

There was no difficulty with any but Nurse. She was a member of the church and of a good character, and, as to her, the jury brought in their verdict not guilty; upon which the accusers made a great clamor, and the court expressed their dissatisfaction with the verdict, which caused some of the jury to desire to go out again; and then they brought her in guilty. This was a hard case, and can scarcely be said to be *the execution of the law and justice in mercy*. In a capital case, the court often refuses a verdict of *guilty*, but rarely, if ever, sends a jury out again upon one of *not guilty*. It does not indeed appear that in this case the jury was ordered out again; but the dissatisfaction expressed by the court seems to have been in such a manner as to have the same effect.

At the next adjournment, August 5th, George Burroughs, John Procter, and Elizabeth his wife, John Willard, George Jacobs, and Martha Carrier were all brought upon trial and condemned, and all executed upon the 19th of August, except Elizabeth Procter, who escaped by pleading pregnancy.

Burroughs had been a preacher, several years before this, at Salem village, where there had been some misunderstanding between him and the people. Afterwards he became a preacher at Wells, in the province of Maine. We will be a little more particular in our account of his trial. The indictment was as follows:

“Anno Regis et Reginæ, etc., quarto.

“*Essex ss.* The Jurors for our sovereign Lord and Lady the King and Queen, present, that George Burroughs, late of Falmouth, in the province of Massachusetts bay, clerk, the ninth day of May, in the fourth year of the reign of our sovereign Lord and Lady William and Mary, by the grace of God of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, King and Queen, defenders of the faith, etc., and divers other days and times, as well before as after, certain detestable arts called witchcrafts and sorceries; wickedly and feloniously hath used, practised, and exercised, at and within the town of Salem, in the county of Essex aforesaid, in, upon, and against one Mary Walcot of Salem village, in the county of Essex, single woman; by which said, wicked arts, the said Mary Walcot, the ninth day of May, in the fourth year above said, and divers other days and times, as well before as after, was and is tortured, afflicted, pined, consumed, wasted, and tormented, against the peace of our sovereign Lord and Lady the King and Queen, and against the form of the statute in that case made and provided. Endorsed *Billa vera*.” Three other bills were found against him for witchcrafts upon other persons, to all which he pleaded not guilty, and put himself upon trial, etc.

September the 9th, *Martha Cory, Mary Esty, Alice Parker, Ann Pudeater, Dorcas Hoar, and Mary Bradbury* were tried, and September 17th, *Margaret Scott, Wilmot Read, Samuel Wardwell, Mary Parker, Abigail Falkner, Rebekah*

Eames, Mary Lacey, Ann Foster, and Abigail Hobbs, and all received sentence of death. Those in italics were executed the 22d following.

Mary Esty, who was sister to Nurse, gave in to the court a petition ; in which she says she does not ask her own life, although she is conscious of her innocence ; but prays them, before they condemn any more, to examine the confessing witches more strictly ; for she is sure they have belied themselves and others, which will appear in the world to which she is going, if it should not in this world.

Those who were condemned and not executed, I suppose, all confessed their guilt. I have seen the confessions of several of them. Wardwell also confessed, but he recanted and suffered. His own wife, as well as his daughter,* accused him and saved themselves. There are many instances, among the examinations, of children accusing their parents, and some of parents accusing their children. This is the only instance of a wife or husband accusing one the other, and surely this instance ought not to have been suffered. I shudder while I am relating it. Besides this irregularity, there were others in the course of these trials. The facts laid in the indictments were, witchcrafts upon particular persons, there was no evidence of these facts, but what was called spectral evidence, which, in the opinion of the ministers, was insufficient ; some of the other evidence was of facts ten or twenty years before, which had no relation to those with which they were charged ; and some of them no relation to the crime of witchcraft. Evidence is not admitted, even against the general character of persons upon trial, unless to encounter other evidence brought in favor of it ; much less ought their whole lives to be arraigned, without giving time sufficient for defence.

Giles Cory was the only person, besides those already named, who suffered. He, seeing the fate of all who had put themselves upon trial, refused to plead ; but the judges, who had not been careful enough in observing the law in favor of the prisoners, determined to do it against this unhappy man, and he had judgment of *peine fort et dure* for standing mute, and was pressed to death ; the only instance which ever was, either before this time or since, in New England. In all ages of the world superstitious credulity has produced greater cruelty than is practised among the Hottentots, or other nations, whose belief of a deity is called in question.

This court of oyer and terminer, happy for the country, sat no more. Nineteen persons had been executed, all asserting their innocence ; but this was not enough to open the eyes of the people in general. The jail at Salem was filled with prisoners, and many had been removed to other jails : some were admitted to bail, all reserved for trial, a law having passed constituting a supreme standing court, with jurisdiction in capital, as well as all other criminal cases. The general court also showed their zeal against witchcraft, by a law passed in the words of the statute of James I., but this law was disallowed by the king.

The time, by law, for holding the court at Salem, was not until January. This gave opportunity for consideration ; and this alone might have been sufficient for a change of opinions and measures, but another reason has been given for it. Ordinarily, persons of the lowest rank in life have had the misfortune to be charged with witchcrafts ; and although many such had suffered, yet there remained in prison a number of women, of as reputable families as any in the towns where they lived,

* The daughter upon a second enquiry denied that she knew her father and mother to be witches ; the wife was not asked a second time

and several persons, of still superior rank, were hinted at by the pretended bewitched, or by the confessing witches. Some had been publicly named. Dudley Bradstreet, a justice of the peace, who had been appointed one of president Dudley's council, and who was son to the worthy old Governor, then living, found it necessary to abscond. Having been remiss in prosecuting, he had been charged by some of the afflicted as a confederate. His brother, John Bradstreet, was forced to fly also. Calef says it was intimated that Sir William Phips's lady was among the accused. It is certain, that one who pretended to be bewitched at Boston, where the infection was beginning to spread, charged the secretary of the colony of Connecticut.

At the court in January, the grand jury found bills against about 50 for witchcraft, one or two men, the rest women; but upon trial, they were all acquitted, except three of the worst characters, and those the Governor reprieved for the king's mercy. All that were not brought upon trial he ordered to be discharged. Such a jail delivery was made in this court as has never been known at any other time in New England.

PRIMITIVE EXTRAVAGANCE.

Mr. Dudley was in favor of making Newtown, now Cambridge, the metropolis of the colony; and after consultation, Governor Winthrop, and the assistants, agreed to settle there, and streets and squares, and market places, were duly surveyed and laid out. In the spring of 1631, Mr. Dudley and others commenced building. Governor Winthrop had set up the frame of a house, but soon after changed his mind, and removed it to Boston. Mr. Dudley finished his house, and moved into it with his family. The first houses were rude structures, the roofs covered with thatch, the fire-places generally made of rough stones, and the chimneys of boards, plastered with clay. The settlers were publicly enjoined to avoid all superfluous expense, in order that their money might be reserved for any unforeseen necessities. Mr. Dudley having finished his house with a little more regard to domestic comfort, exposed himself to public censure. At a meeting of the Governor and assistants, he was told, that "he did not well to bestow such cost about wainscoting and adorning his house, in the beginning of a plantation, both in regard to the expense, and the example." Dudley's answer was, that it was for the warmth of his house, and the charge was little, "*being but clapboards nailed to the wall in the form of wainscot.*"

THE MEN OF "SEVENTY-SIX."

In Stockbridge, Berkshire county, Mass., Deacon Cleveland and another leading member of the church had been selected, for their positions in the centre of the valley and of the village, to spread the note of alarm. The son of the deacon, a young man only 17 years of age at the time, gave to a friend of the writer a description of the reception of the news in that little village.

One quiet Sabbath morning, when all was still, as it ever was in that peaceful valley on that holy day, he was suddenly startled by the report of a musket. On going out to ascertain what it meant, he saw his father in the back yard with the discharged piece in his hand. Before he had time to express his wonder, another report broke the stillness of the Sabbath morning, and as the smoke curled up in the damp atmosphere, he saw in the neighboring yard one of the chief pillars of the church, standing with his musket in his hand. He paused astounded, not know-

ing what awful phenomenon this strange event portended. He said that he thought that the judgment day had come. But in a few moments he noticed men hurrying along the hitherto deserted street, with weapons in their hands. One by one they entered his father's gate, and gathered on the low stoop. The flashing eye and flushed cheek told that something eventful had transpired—and there had.

When the report of those two muskets echoed along the sweet valley of the Housatonic and up the adjacent slopes, the sturdy farmers knew what it meant. The father, just preparing for the duties of the sanctuary, heard it, and, flinging aside his Sabbath garments, hastily resumed his work-day dress, and taking down his musket, strained his wife and children in one long farewell embrace to his bosom, then turned from the home he might never see again. The young man buckled on his knapsack, and amid sobs and tears shut the little farm gate behind him, the fire in his eye drying up the tears as fast as they welled to the surface. Although the heart heaved with emotion, the step was firm and the brow knit and resolute.

In a short time the little porch was crowded with men. A moment after, Dr. West, the pastor, was seen slowly descending the hill towards the same place of rendezvous. It was a cold, drizzly morning, and as, with his umbrella over his head, and the Bible under his arm, he entered the dooryard, his benevolent face revealed the emotion that was struggling within. He, too, knew the meaning of those shots; they were the signals agreed upon to inform the minute-men of Stockbridge that their brethren in the East had closed with the foe in battle. He ascended the steps, and, opening the Bible, read a few appropriate passages, and then sent up a fervent prayer to Heaven. When he ceased, the rattling of arms was heard. A short and solemn blessing closed the impressive scene, and before 12 o'clock twenty men, with knapsacks on their backs and muskets on their shoulders, had started on foot for Boston, nearly 200 miles distant.

Oh, how deep down in the consciences of men had the principles of that struggle sunk, when they made those Puritans forget the solemn duties of the sanctuary for the higher duties of the battle-field. They had been taught from the pulpit that it was the cause of God, and they took it up in the full belief they had his blessing and his promise. Such scenes as these were enacted every where, and from the consecrating hand of the man of God went forth the thousand separate bands that soon after met and stood shoulder to shoulder on the smoky heights of Bunker Hill.

GREAT FIRE OF '71.

On the 9th and 10th of November, 1871, Boston experienced the greatest calamity that ever befell it. On the 9th a fire broke out, and raged for two days. It resisted for a while every effort to stay its progress, and swept through the richest business quarter of the city. It began at about 7 o'clock in the evening of the 9th of November, at the corner of Summer and Kingston streets, and owing to the delay of the engines, consequent upon the prevalence of disease among the horses of the Fire Department, gained considerable headway before anything could be done to check it. Its course was steadily to the northward. It passed through, and laid in ruins, most of the district bounded by Summer, Washington, and State streets and the water line. This district embraced the heavy wholesale portion of the business quarter, and was built in the most solid and substantial manner, the buildings being chiefly of stone and iron.

RHODE ISLAND.

Area,	1,306 Square Miles
Population in 1860,	174,620
Population in 1870,	217,356

THE State of Rhode Island is the smallest in the Union. It is situated between $41^{\circ} 18'$ and 42° N. latitude, and $71^{\circ} 8'$ and $71^{\circ} 52'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north and east by Massachusetts, on the south by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by Connecticut. Its greatest length, from north to south, is 47 miles, and its greatest breadth, from east to west, about 37 miles.

TOPOGRAPHY.

Narraganset Bay divides the State into two unequal portions. It enters the extreme eastern part, and extends inland for 30 miles in a northerly direction. It is a beautiful sheet of water, and has a depth sufficient to accommodate the largest vessels. It abounds in good harbors, of which the harbor of Newport is the finest, and is unsurpassed by any in the world.

The bay is about 12 miles wide, is thickly studded with the most picturesque islands. Different names are given its various parts. The upper part is called Providence Bay; the northeastern part, Bristol Bay; just east of which is Mount Hope Bay, separated from Providence and Bristol bays by a long, narrow peninsula which comprises Bristol county. Providence, at the extreme northern end, and Newport at the southern end of Narraganset Bay, are the capitals of the State.

Block Island, lying in the Atlantic Ocean, 10 miles south of the mainland, belongs to this State.

Rhode Island, lying near about the centre of Narraganset Bay, is the principal island belonging to the State, and has given its name

to the whole Commonwealth. It is exceedingly beautiful in formation; is delightfully situated, and covers an area of 37 square miles, being 15 miles long, and about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles wide. It contains the city of Newport; and is one of the most fashionable summer resorts in the Union.

Canonicut, *Prudence*, and several other small islands lie in the bay.

The Rivers of Rhode Island are small. The principal are the *Pawtucket* and the *Pawtuxet*. The former flows into Narraganset Bay to the east of Providence, while the latter and its tributaries drain the southern and western parts of the State. The Pawtucket has a fall of 50 feet at the town of Pawtucket. Above this fall, it is called the Blackstone; and below it, the Seekonk. The *Taunton River* enters the southeastern part of the State, from Massachusetts. These streams all possess admirable water-power.

Along the Atlantic coast and the shores of Narraganset Bay, the surface of the State is level; but as it recedes westward and northward it becomes rolling, although there are no elevations in any part meriting the name of mountains. Mount Hope, in the eastern part, the Woonsocket Hills, in the northern part, and Hopkins' Hill, about the centre of the State, are the principal elevations.

MINERALS.

Rhode Island possesses very few minerals. Anthracite coal has been found, but scarcely any attention has been paid to it. Iron, limestone, marble, and serpentine also exist to a limited extent.

CLIMATE.

The climate resembles that of Massachusetts, except that the immediate proximity of the sea does much to mitigate the extremes of cold in the winter and of heat in the summer, with which the Bay State is afflicted; so that Rhode Island is, perhaps, in this respect, the most pleasant of all the New England States.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

In some places the soil is passably fertile, but in others it requires the most careful and laborious cultivation. On the islands it is richer than on the mainland. Dairy farming and grazing occupy the attention of the principal portion of the agricultural class.

In 1869, there were in the State 335,128 acres of improved land, and 186,096 acres of unimproved. The agricultural wealth of the State at the present time is as follows :

Cash value of farms (estimated),	\$25,000,000
Value of farming implements and machinery (estimated),	\$850,000
Number of horses,	9,120
“ asses and mules,	20
“ milch cows,	23,180
“ other cattle,	21,420
“ sheep,	34,320
“ swine,	21,960
Value of domestic animals,	\$2,942,144
Bushels of wheat,	8,600
“ rye,	31,000
“ Indian corn,	440,000
“ oats,	250,000
“ Irish potatoes,	770,000
“ barley,	55,000
Pounds of wool,	90,699
“ butter,	1,021,767
“ cheese,	181,511
Tons of hay,	71,000
Value of orchard products,	\$83,691
“ market garden products,	\$146,661
“ home-made manufactures,	\$7,824
“ slaughtered animals,	\$713,725

COMMERCE.

Rhode Island is actively engaged in commerce, both foreign and domestic. During the year 1861, the total value of its exports was \$255,297, and of the imports \$543,652. In 1862, the tonnage owned in the State was 41,671, of which 11,440 was registered tonnage, 30,231 enrolled licensed, of which 5064 was steam tonnage.

MANUFACTURES.

The State is extensively engaged in manufactures, its streams furnishing water-power unsurpassed by any in New England. The first cotton-mill ever erected in this country was built in Rhode Island. By the census of 1870, there were 1850 establishments in the State devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts. They employed 49,417 hands, and a capital of \$66,557,322, consumed raw material worth \$73,154,109, and yielded an annual product of \$111,418,354. There were 142 cotton factories, employing 5697 male and 8060 female hands, and a capital of \$18,885,300, consuming raw

material worth \$13,325,938, and returning an annual product of \$22,139,203. There were 65 woollen factories, employing 3354 male and 2198 female hands, and a capital of \$8,167,500, consuming raw material worth \$8,089,948, and yielding an annual product of \$12,558,117. The other manufactures were as follows:

Value of	steam engines and machinery, . . .	\$5,125,650
"	agricultural implements, . . .	92,464
"	sawed and planed lumber, . . .	298,638
"	flour,	1,728,704
"	sewing machines,	200,000
"	boots and shoes,	570,854
"	furniture,	311,620
"	jewelry, silver ware, etc.,	3,043,846

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In 1870, there were 152 miles of railroad completed in the State of Rhode Island, which had been constructed and equipped at a cost of \$5,011,000. Providence and Newport have railway communication with Boston and New York, and the principal cities of the Union. Railroads also connect the principal towns of the State.

EDUCATION.

There is a permanent school fund which amounts to over \$420,000. The public schools are under the general supervision of the State Superintendents of Public Instruction, and are immediately in charge of the local school committees, who perform the duties already explained in connection with the committees of the other States. There was a Normal School in operation until 1865, but it was abolished in that year. Efforts are now being made to revive it, and in the meantime the State provides for the education of teachers in certain Academies.

There are about 487 public schools in the State. The attendance is as follows: in the summer, 24,953 pupils; in the winter, 30,780; average summer attendance, 19,972; average winter attendance, 23,720.

The only college in the State is *Brown University*, founded in 1764. It has schools of agriculture and science connected with it, and is in a flourishing condition. There are, also, a few academies in prosperous condition.

In 1870, there were in Rhode Island 759 libraries, containing 693,387 volumes—over 300 being public libraries.

There were, in the same year, 5 daily, 1 semi-weekly, 19 weekly newspapers, and 1 monthly periodical, published in this State. Their aggregate annual circulation was 5,289,280 copies.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The State Prison is located at Providence. It is provided with a library, and religious services are held regularly in the chapel. The number of convicts in prison, in 1868, was 59.

The Reform School at Providence, is not a State institution, though the Legislature makes a liberal donation to it for board of inmates sent there from localities outside of Providence. It receives both sexes; and after educating them, provides for their establishment in some useful trade.

Rhode Island has no public asylum for the insane. Patients are maintained at the expense of the State in the *Butler Asylum*, at Providence, and in the State Lunatic Asylums of Massachusetts and Vermont. Patients are also supported by Rhode Island in the Deaf and Dumb Asylum at Hartford, Conn., and in the Perkins Institution for the Blind, at Boston.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

The total value of church property in 1870, was \$4,117,200. There were 283 churches in the State, in the same year.

FINANCES.

The State debt, in 1874, amounted to \$2,563,500. The receipts of the Treasury for the year 1874 were \$549,701, and the expenditures \$282,854, leaving a balance of \$266,947. The State debt is due entirely on account of the late war.

In 1868, there were 62 National Banks in Rhode Island, with an aggregate capital of \$20,364,800.

GOVERNMENT.

Every male citizen, who has resided in the State one year, and in the town six months, and who owns real estate worth \$134, or rents \$7 per annum, and every *native* male citizen, twenty-one years old, who has resided in the State two years, and six months in the town, who is duly registered, and has paid a tax of \$1, or done militia duty within the year, is entitled to vote.

The Government of the State is confided to a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, a Legislature, Secretary of State, Treasurer, and Attorney-General, who are chosen annually by the people on the first Wednesday of April, and hold office for one year, commencing from the last Tuesday in May.

The Senate consists of the Lieutenant-Governor and one member from each of the 34 towns of the State, and is presided over by the Governor. The House of Representatives consists of 72 members. The Legislature meets regularly at Newport on the last Tuesday in May, and holds an adjourned session at Providence, the next January.

The judiciary is comprised of a Supreme Court, consisting of a Chief Justice, and three Associate Justices. It has exclusive power to try all indictments for crimes for which the penalty is imprisonment for life.

A Court of Common Pleas is held in each county, by one of the Justices of the Supreme Court, at stated times. The capitals of the State are Providence and Newport.

For purposes of government, the State is divided into 5 counties.

HISTORY.

Rhode Island was first settled in 1636, by Roger Williams and five associates, who had been driven out of Massachusetts for expressing opinions, upon political and religious matters, adverse to those entertained by the magistrates of the Bay Colony. They fixed their abode at the head of Narraganset Bay, and called the name of their settlement Providence, "in grateful acknowledgment of God's merciful providence to him (Williams) in his distress." This colony was planted upon the basis of entire freedom in religious opinions and utterances. In 1637, William Coddington and 18 others, having been banished from Massachusetts, for their religious opinions, joined Williams, and, by his advice, purchased the island of Aquetneck (Rhode Island) from the Indians, and settled upon it, founding Newport and Portsmouth. A third settlement was made at Warwick, in 1642, and all three settlements began and continued to receive fresh accessions from the Bay Colony. In 1642, Williams went to England, and the next year secured a patent for the United Government of Providence, Newport, and Portsmouth, but the patent was not accepted until 1647. It continued in force until 1663, when the province was reorganized under a new charter, granted by Charles II., which formally established the colony of "Rhode Island and Providence Plantations."



COAST FISHING.

This charter continued to be the sole Constitution of Rhode Island until the year 1842, when the present Constitution was adopted.

The colony continued to grow and prosper, but suffered severely at the hands of the savages during King Philip's war, in which struggle Providence was burned, as were many houses in other parts of the province. Philip's principal stronghold was in this State, in the swamp near Mount Hope. He was killed there in August, 1676. The great battle which destroyed the Narragansets as a nation, took place in a swamp in the southern part of this State. Rhode Island was opposed to the policy of exterminating the Indians, upon which Connecticut and Massachusetts had decided, and was not even consulted in regard to the war by those colonies.

In 1686, Sir Edmund Andros was appointed Governor-General of New England. One of his first acts was to abrogate the charter of Rhode Island, and reduce the province to a mere county, which he governed by his own creatures. Upon his downfall, the magistrates reorganized the colonial government under the charter.

Rhode Island bore a prominent part in the various wars with the French in America. Her troops distinguished themselves in the attacks upon Louisburg, Cape Breton, Crown Point, and Oswego, and

in the various expeditions against Canada. In 1756, there were 50 privateers, manned by over 1500 men, belonging to this colony, and at sea. They were employed along the coast and in the West Indies, where they inflicted considerable damage upon the commerce of France.

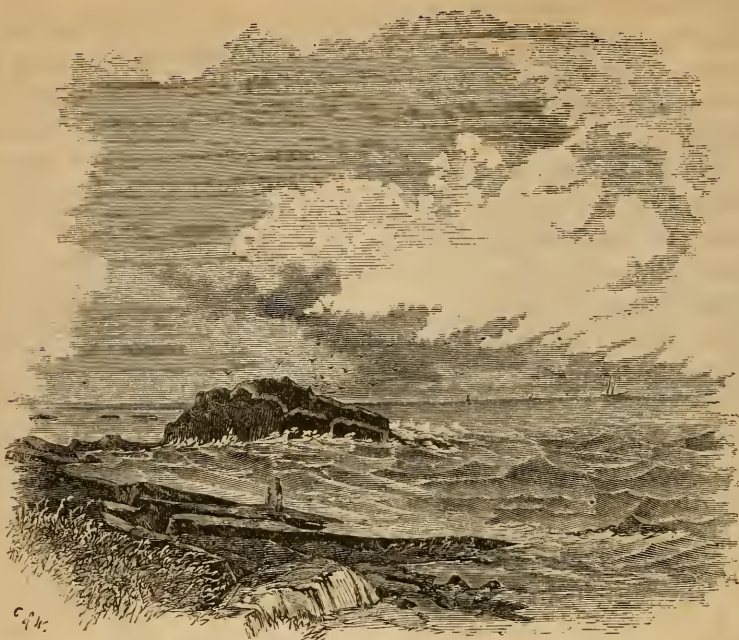
The colony was warm in its resistance of the injustice of Great Britain, and gave a liberal support to the Revolution. Privateers were sent out from, and government cruisers equipped in the ports of this State, and a full complement of men was furnished to the continental army. General Greene, of the army, and Captains Whipple and Talbot, of the navy, were natives of Rhode Island. The harbors along the Narraganset Bay were of the greatest importance to the colonial cause at the outset of the struggle. In December, 1776, Sir Henry Clinton, the British commander, occupied the island of Rhode Island, and held Newport for several years, during which time he kept the greater part of the State in a continual terror. In the fall of 1778, an unsuccessful effort was made by an American army, aided by the French fleet under Count de Grasse, to drive the enemy away. Late in 1779, Clinton evacuated Newport, and concentrated his forces at New York, and the next year the fleet and army of Count de Rochambeau reached Newport from France.

Rhode Island was the last of the 13 original States to ratify the Federal Constitution, and was not admitted into the Union until the 29th of May, 1790.

The victory on Lake Erie in 1812, was won by a Rhode Island Commander (Oliver H. Perry), whose force was principally made up of Rhode Island seamen.

In 1842, a change in the Constitution of the State having become desirable, a portion of the people, known as the "suffrage party," illegally framed a new constitution, and proceeded to elect a legislature and Governor, and to make laws for the State. They were led by Thomas W. Dorr, their pretended governor, and endeavored to establish their authority by force of arms. They were dispersed by the State troops. The proper authorities then summoned a convention. It met in September, 1842, and adopted the present Constitution of the State, which was ratified by the almost unanimous vote of the people in 1843.

During the late war, Rhode Island contributed 25,355 men to the military service of the Union.



NARRAGANSET BAY.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

The cities and towns of importance, besides the capitals, are, Smithfield, North Providence, Warwick, Bristol, South Kingston, Coventry, East Greenwich, and Pawtucket.

PROVIDENCE,

In Providence county, is the largest city, and one of the capitals of the State. It is situated at the head of navigation on Narraganset Bay, 43 miles south-southwest of Boston.

“It is one of the most beautiful cities in New England, and is surpassed only by Boston in wealth and population. It is pleasantly situated on the northern arm of the Narraganset Bay, called Providence River. It is an ancient town, dating as far back as 1636—when its founder, Roger Williams, driven from the domain of Massachusetts, sought here that religious liberty which was denied him elsewhere.

“This city makes a charming picture seen from the approach by

the beautiful waters of the Narraganset, which it encircles on the north by its business quarter, rising beyond and rather abruptly to a lofty terrace, where the quiet and gratefully shaded streets are filled with dainty cottages and handsome mansions. Providence was once a very important commercial depot, its rich ships crossing all seas, and at the present day the city is equally distinguished for its manufacturing and commercial enterprise. In the former department of human achievement it early took the lead, which it still keeps, the first cotton-mill which was built in America being still in use, in its suburban village of Pawtucket, and some of the heaviest mills and print-works of the Union being now in operation within its limits. It has also extensive manufactories of machinery and jewelry. The workshops of the American Screw Company are the best appointed of their kind in the country. The total capital invested here in manufactures is upwards of \$16,000,000.

“Providence is the seat of Brown University, one of the best educational establishments in America. It was founded in Warren, Rhode Island, in 1764, and removed to Providence in 1770. Its library is very large and valuable, and is remarkably rich in rare and costly works.

“Rhode Island Hospital, now progressing towards completion in the southwestern suburb, will be one of the finest structures in the State. The entire cost, including grounds, will exceed a quarter million of dollars.

“The Athenæum has a fine reading-room, and a collection of 29,000 books. The Providence Historical Society, incorporated 1822, has a library of 4000 volumes. The Butler Hospital for the Insane, upon the banks of Seekonk River, is an admirable institution, occupying large and imposing edifices. In the same part of the city, and lying also upon the Seekonk River, is the Swan Point Cemetery, a spot of great rural beauty. There are upwards of 60 public schools in Providence, in which instruction is given to between eight and nine thousand pupils. The Dexter Asylum for the Poor stands upon an elevated range of land east of the river. In the same vicinage is the yearly meeting boarding-school, belonging to the Society of Friends. The Reform School occupies the large mansion, in the southeast part of the city, formerly known as the Tockwotton House. The Home for Aged Women and the Children’s Friend Society are worthy a visit. The Custom-House (Post-Office, and United States Courts) is a handsome granite structure, and one of the principal architectural ornaments of

the city. The railroad depot, some of the banks, and many of the churches of Providence, are imposing structures. The railways diverging from Providence, are the Providence and Worcester, 43 miles, to Worcester, Mass.; Hartford, Providence and Fishkill, 123 miles, to Waterbury, Conn.; Boston and Providence, and Stonington and Providence, 62 miles, to New London; and the Providence, Warren and Bristol. Upon the immediate edge of the city, on the shore of a charming bay in the Seekonk River, stands the famous What Cheer Rock, where the founder of the city, Roger Williams, landed from the Massachusetts side, to make the first settlement here.

"At Hunt's Mill, 3 or 4 miles distant, is a beautiful brook with a picturesque little cascade, a drive to which is among the morning or evening pleasures of the Providence people and their guests. *Vue de l'Eau* is the name of a picturesque and spacious summer hotel, perched upon a high terrace 4 miles below the city, overlooking the bay and its beauties for many miles around.

"Gaspee Point, below, upon the opposite shore of the Narraganset, was the scene of an exploit during the Revolution. Some citizens of Providence, after adroitly beguiling an obnoxious British revenue craft upon the treacherous bar, stole down by boats in the night and settled her business by burning her to the water's edge." *

Providence contains many handsome buildings, both public and private. There are 54 churches, 35 banks, 27 public schools, and 7 or 8 newspaper establishments in the city. It is supplied with water, and lighted with gas. Street railways connect the prominent points.

Providence is the centre of an important commerce with the Atlantic coast of the Union, and with foreign countries. Manufactures are also extensively carried on here. Jewelry is made in great quantities, sometimes amounting to \$3,000,000 per annum. Cotton and woollen goods, furniture and wooden ware, iron goods, machinery of various kinds, paper, boots and shoes, carriages, and locomotives, are the principal articles. In 1864, the value of the manufactures of Providence was \$30,638,177. The population of the city is 68,906, which makes it the second city in New England.

NEWPORT,

In Newport county, 28 miles southeast of Providence, is one of the capitals of the State. It is situated on the west shore of the island

* Hand-Book of American Travel.



NEWPORT.

of Rhode Island, about 5 miles from the sea. The town is located on the slope of a slight hill facing the harbor, and is, in the main, handsomely built, containing a number of fine public buildings and private residences. The principal buildings are the State House, the Custom House, Market House, and the Redwood Library, a fine Doric building containing about 1500 volumes, and a number of valuable busts and paintings. There are about 16 churches, 7 banks, 2 newspaper offices, and a number of manufacturing establishments in Newport. The city is well laid off, and is lighted with gas. It has a population of 12,521.

The hotels are its principal attraction. There are several first-class establishments, capable of accommodating several thousand visitors. Its admirable climate and situation have made Newport one of the most popular seaside resorts in the Union. The whole southern part of the island is now dotted with cottages and villas, many of them very handsome, belonging to wealthy citizens of various parts of the country, who pass the summer months here.

"The facilities for surf-bathing at Newport are not excelled by any place in this country. There are three fine beaches, called Easton's, Sachuest's, and Smith's. Easton's is the one generally used by the majority; and it is so situated that there is no danger to the bathers

from under-currents, while the breakers follow each other in majestic succession. This beach is about half a mile from the principal hotels, and public conveyances ply regularly to and fro.

"The drives about Newport are excellent. In 1867, a new one was made by the city authorities, commencing at Bellevue avenue, near the Ocean House, and continuing south 2 miles; thence west 3 miles, along the shore; thence north 1 mile; and thence northeast to Bellevue avenue, 3 miles. The entire drive is 10 miles long, 80 feet wide, and is macadamized. It is pronounced the best one in the country, and some of the finest residences in the city are located on it. An unobstructed view of the Atlantic Ocean is afforded for nearly the entire length of this road.

"Near Sachuest Beach, at the northern extremity of the Bluff, is a dark chasm called Purgatory. By actual measurement, the chasm is 160 feet in length; from 8 to 14 feet wide at the top; from 2 to 24 feet wide at the bottom; 50 feet deep at the outer edge; and 10 feet of water at low tide. Near by are the Hanging Rocks, within whose shadow it is said that Bishop Berkeley wrote his "Minute Philosopher." The Glen and the Spouting Cave are charming places to ride to, when the weather invites. Lily Pond, the largest sheet of spring water on the island, is easily reached from Spouting Cave. The waters of the pond swarm with perch.

"The city of Newport is so ancient, and once so prominent a town, that it would be of interest to the visitor, wholly apart from its present fashionable relations. Indeed, Newport may be said properly to be two places—an old metropolis, and a watering-place; and, like Quebec reversed, it has its upper, or new town, and its lower, or old town. The harbor is one of the best and deepest in the world. The entrance to it is 2 miles in width, 29 fathoms in depth, and in only one instance has it been closed by ice since the first settlement. As late as 1769, the city exceeded New York in the extent of her foreign and domestic commerce. In the Revolution, the British long held possession of the place, during which time (till 1797) the population decreased from 12,000 to 4000. Among the interesting relics to be found in the town, are: Franklin's printing-press, imported by James Franklin in 1720. It is in the office of the *Newport Mercury*, established in 1758. Upon this press the first newspaper issued (1732) was printed. The Chair of State, in which Benedict Arnold sat at the reception of the charter in 1663, is in the possession of the Gould family. The first Baptist Church, founded in 1638, and claimed as the oldest church in Rhode Island, is worthy a visit.

“Newport was the birthplace of the gifted miniature painter Malbone, and Gilbert Stuart’s place of nativity may be seen in Narraganset, across the bay. Stuart made two copies of his great Washington picture for Rhode Island, one of which may be seen in the State House at Newport, and the other in that at Providence.

“The old Stone Mill, in Touro Park, opposite the Atlantic House, is a curiosity, and is tenderly cared for by the city authorities. It is sometimes called the Round Tower. The origin and early history of this ‘old mill’ is a mystery, and has led to many fruitless conjectures. Some antiquarians claim for it the honor of having afforded a secure shelter to the Norsemen, who, they say, built it as a lookout and a tower of defence; but the modern observers deny it this enviable renown, and maintain that it was built by Governor Benedict Arnold, the first charter governor of the colony, who owned the property at the time of his death, and calls it in his will ‘my stone-built wind-mill.’ Redwood Library, near the opera-house, established by Abraham Redwood in 1750, contains one of the very best collections of paintings, choice books, and statuary in the country. The Jewish Synagogue, on Touro street, was built in 1672, and up to the Revolutionary war was regularly opened for worship, and was the only place in New England where Hebrew was chanted and read weekly. There were many families of wealthy and influential Jews in Newport at that time; now there are none. Abraham Touro left \$20,000 in charge of the town authorities, the interest to be expended in keeping the synagogue and grounds, and street leading to it, in repair; and the wishes of the donor have been carefully complied with. Besides these places, the visitor should see the Perry Monument, Commodore Perry’s house, built in 1763, and long known as the ‘Granary;’ the fortifications in the harbor, Fort Adams, Fort Wolcott, Fort Brown, and the Dumplings. Fort Adams, on Brenton Point, is one of the largest works in the United States, mounting 460 guns.” *

Newport was occupied by the British during several years of the Revolution. They quartered 8000 troops upon the town, destroyed 480 houses, robbed the library, which was then the finest in America, and carried off the town records.

In the spring of 1776, Admiral Wallace was driven out of the harbor of Newport, by a vigorous attack, assisted by the Providence troops. But in December of the same year arrived the British fleet under Sir Peter Parker. It sailed up the West Passage, crossed from the north point of Conanicut, and landed an army of 8000 or 10,000 English and Hessians, commanded by General Clinton and Lord Percy, in Middletown, about five miles from Newport. The army immediately began to plunder, and was quartered upon the inhabitants until May,

1777, when Clinton and Percy, with a large party left for New York, and General Prescott succeeded to the command. He made himself obnoxious by petty tyranny, but Major Barton revenged the injuries of the island by a feat of memorable ingenuity and valor.

Barton was on duty with the Rhode Island line, and after the capture of General Lee, in November, 1776, he considered how he might retort upon the enemy, and resolved to capture Prescott. When the English landed, Major Barton was stationed at Tiverton, upon the mainland, not far from the shore of Rhode Island. He waited for several months, but found no fit opportunity, until a British deserter was brought into his quarters. Barton ascertained from him the situation of Prescott's headquarters, and all the necessary details, and prepared to put his plan immediately into execution. He and his men were new to the service, and failure was permanent disgrace, as he well knew; but without a moment's hesitation he selected his companions from the officers, told them the scope of the undertaking, and engaged their confidence and sympathy. Five whale-boats were procured and fitted. At the last moment Barton addressed his soldiers, and said that he wished the voluntary assistance of about 40 men. The whole regiment advanced, and declared itself ready to accompany him. On the 4th of July, 1777, the party left Tiverton, and crossed to the western shore of the bay. At 9 o'clock on the evening of the 9th of July, they left Warwick Neck in the whale-boats. That of Major Barton went in front, and was distinguished from the others by a handkerchief tied to a pole in the stern. The little fleet dropped silently down the bay, between the islands of Patience and Prudence. In the stillness of the night they heard the drowsy call of "All's well," from the sentinels on the English ships, and as they touched the shore of Rhode Island a sound as of running horses was heard. It was too late to be alarmed, and the party landed in silence, Major Barton detailing one man to remain in each boat. They landed about a mile from the headquarters of General Prescott, and crept toward it in five divisions. There were three doors to the house—on the south, the east, and the west. One division was to advance upon each door, the fourth was to guard the road, and the fifth to act as a reserve.

As they reached the house they were challenged by the sentinel.

"Friends," said Barton.

"Advance and give the countersign," was the reply.

"D—n you, we have no countersign. Have you seen any deserters to-night?" said Barton, advancing upon the sentry, seizing his musket, telling him he was a prisoner, and threatening him with instant death if he betrayed them by making a noise. The sentry said that the general was in the house. Each division had now reached its station; the doors were forced, and the soldiers rushed up stairs to the chamber of the host. He was speechless with fright, and pointed to the room below as that of the general. Making sure of the host, they returned into the entry, where Barton ordered them to fire the house at the four corners, as he meant to have the general, alive or dead. But at this moment, aroused by the noise, Prescott called to know what was the matter. The soldiers ran down stairs and entered his room, where Barton saw a man sitting on the side of the bed.

"Are you General Prescott?" demanded Barton.

"I am, sir," replied the officer.

"You are my prisoner," returned Barton.

"I acknowledge it, sir," said the general.

Major Barton then told him that he must go with them, and to his request that he might be allowed to dress himself, replied that he was very sorry that his business required great dispatch, and the general was obliged to hurry off as he was. Prescott's aid, Major Barrington, had leaped out of a window at the beginning of the fray, and had landed safely in the midst of the guard of reserve. Of the three prisoners, only the sentinel had his shoes on; and as the party hurried across the field of rye-stubble tangled with blackberry bushes, the general's feet and legs, as also those of Major Barrington, were sorely scratched. But the party was led along to the shore as directly and rapidly as possible, and reached their boats safely. Barton placed the prisoners in his boat, and wrapping his cloak around the shivering general, he ordered the little fleet to put off. The alarm was given from the shore by guns and rockets, but the boats darted silently and swiftly out of danger. General Prescott asked if Barton commanded, and said to him:

"You have made a bold push to-night," and expressed the hope that he should not be hurt.

"Not while you are in my care," said Barton.

The bay was in a wild confusion with the spreading alarm; but straight under the bows and sterns of the English ships, in that darkest hour preceding dawn, the prisoner was safely rowed, and morning broke upon the expedition arriving under the guns of its own batteries. General Prescott was afterwards exchanged for General Lee.

MISCELLANY.

In 1772, the famous seizure of the British schooner *Gaspée* occurred in Narraganset Bay. The following account of the occurrence was written by Colonel Ephraim Bowen, of Providence, who was an actor in the scene:

In the year 1772, the British Government had stationed at Newport, Rhode Island, a sloop of war, with her tender, the schooner called the *Gaspée*, of eight guns, commanded by William Duddingston, a lieutenant in the British navy, for the purpose of preventing the clandestine landing of articles subject to the payment of duty. The captain of this schooner made it his practice to stop and board all vessels entering or leaving the ports of Rhode Island, or leaving Newport for Providence.

On the 17th of June, 1772, Captain Thomas Lindsay left Newport, in his packet, for Providence, about noon, with the wind at north; and soon after, the *Gaspée* was under sail, in pursuit of Lindsay, and continued the chase as far as Namcut Point. Lindsay was standing easterly, with the tide on the ebb, about two hours, when he hove about at the end of Namcut Point, and stood to the westward; and Duddingston, in close chase, changed his course and ran on the point near its end and grounded. Lindsay continued in his course up the river, and arrived at Providence about sunset, when he immediately informed Mr. John Brown, one of our first and most respectable merchants, of the situation of the *Gaspée*. Mr. Brown immediately resolved on her destruction; and he forthwith directed one of his trusty shipmasters to collect eight of the largest long boats in the harbor, with five oars to each, to have the oar-locks well muffled to prevent noise, and to place them at Fenner's wharf, directly opposite to the dwelling of Mr. James Sabine.

Soon after sunset, a man passed along the main street, beating a drum, and informing the inhabitants that the *Gaspée* was aground on Namcut Point, and

inviting those persons who felt a disposition to go and destroy that troublesome vessel, to repair in the evening to Mr. James Sabine's house. About nine o'clock I took my father's gun, and my powder-horn and bullets, and went to Mr. Sabine's, and found it full of people; where I loaded my gun, and all remained there till ten o'clock, *some casting* bullets in the kitchen, and others making arrangements for departure, when orders were given to cross the street to Fenner's wharf and embark, which soon took place, and a sea-captain acted as steersman of each boat, of whom I recollect Captain Abraham Whipple, Captain John B. Hopkins (with whom I embarked), and Captain Benjamin Dunn. A line from right to left was soon formed, with Captain Whipple on the right, and Captain Hopkins on the right of the left wing. The party thus proceeded, till within about sixty yards of the Gaspée, when a sentinel hailed, "Who comes there?" No answer. He hailed again, and no answer. In about a minute, Duddingston mounted the starboard gunwale, in his shirt, and hailed, "Who comes there?" No answer. He hailed again, when Captain Whipple answered as follows: "I am the sheriff of the county of Kent; I have got a warrant to apprehend you; so surrender, d—n you."

I took my seat on the thwart, near the larboard row-lock, with my gun at my right side, and facing forward. As soon as Duddingston began to hail, Joseph Bucklin, who was standing on the main thwart by my right side, said to me, "Ephie, reach me your gun, and I can kill that fellow." I reached it to him accordingly, when, during Captain Whipple's replying, Bucklin fired, and Duddingston fell; and Bucklin exclaimed, "I have killed the rascal!" In less than a minute after Captain Whipple's answer, the boats were alongside the Gaspée, and boarded without opposition. The men on deck retreated below, as Duddingston entered the cabin.

As it was discovered that he was wounded, John Mawney, who had, for two or three years, been studying medicine and surgery, was ordered to go into the cabin and dress Duddingston's wound, and I was directed to assist him. On examination, it was found that the ball took effect directly below the navel. Duddingston called for Mr. Dickinson to produce bandages and other necessities for the dressing of the wound; and, when this was done, orders were given to the schooner's company to collect their clothing and everything belonging to them, and to put them into the boats, as all of them were to be sent on shore. All were soon collected and put on board of the boats, including one of our boats.

They departed and landed Duddingston at the old still-house wharf at Pawtuxet, and put the chief into the house of Joseph Rhodes. Soon after, all the party were ordered to depart, leaving one boat for the leaders of the expedition, who soon set the vessel on fire, which consumed her to the water's edge.

The names of the most conspicuous actors are as follows, viz: Mr. John Brown, Captain Abraham Whipple, John B. Hopkins, Benjamin Dunn, and five others whose names I have forgotten, and John Mawney, Benjamin Page, Joseph Bucklin, and Toupin Smith, my youthful companions, all of whom are dead—I believe every man of the party—excepting myself; and my age is eighty-six years, this twenty-ninth day of August, eighteen hundred and thirty-nine.

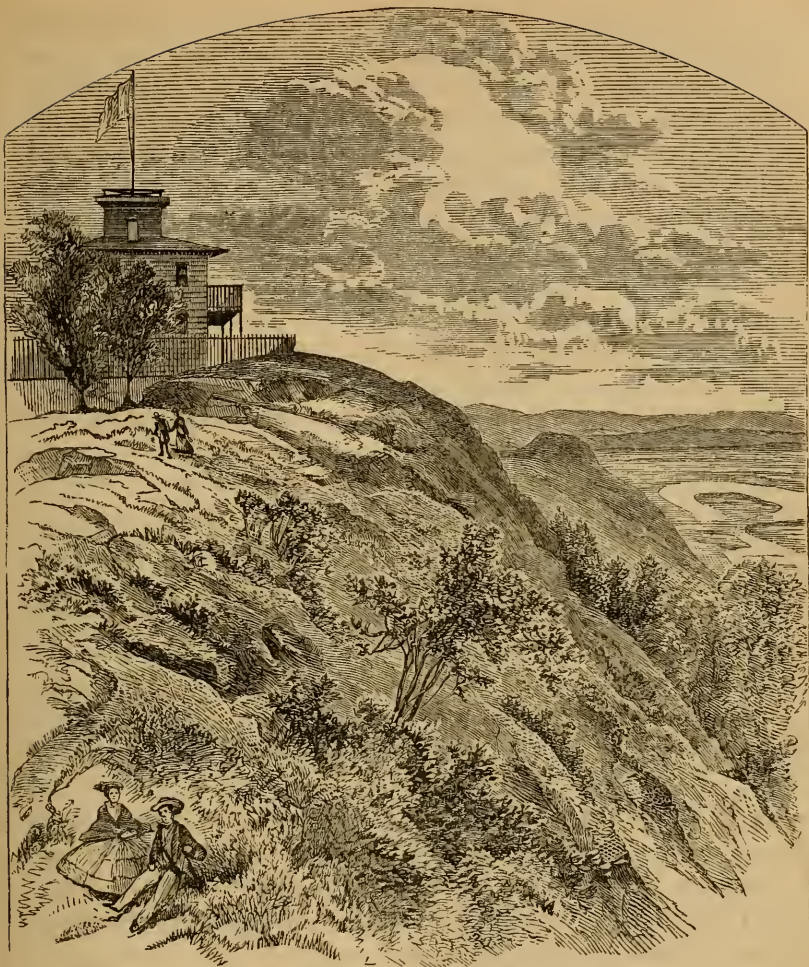
CONNECTICUT.

Area,	4,674 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	460,147
Population in 1870,	537,454

THE State of Connecticut lies between latitude 41° and $42^{\circ} 3' N.$, and longitude $71^{\circ} 55'$ and $73^{\circ} 50' W.$; and is bounded on the north by Massachusetts, on the east by Rhode Island, on the south by Long Island Sound, and on the west by New York. Its extreme length from east to west is about 93 miles, and its greatest width from north to south 68 miles. It is, next to Rhode Island and Delaware, the smallest State in the Union.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The country bordering Long Island Sound is level, but a great part of the State is rugged and mountainous, though the mountains, as they are called, are little more than high hills. In the eastern part, between the Connecticut River and the Rhode Island line, is a ridge, supposed to be the extreme prolongation of the White Mountains of New Hampshire. The western part is crossed by an extension of the Green Mountains of Vermont, which reach almost to the shore of the Sound. This range consists of a series of detached peaks. The Talcot or Greenwood Range passes across the State from the Massachusetts line to the immediate vicinity of New Haven. East of this range are the Middletown Mountains, which extend southward from Hartford to North Branford, east of New Haven, running parallel with the Greenwood Range. In the northern part of the State there is a small range between the Green and the Greenwood Mountains. Though of a moderate elevation, these ranges are exceedingly picturesque, and give a peculiar charm to the scenery of the State. "Most of the ridges are



VIEW FROM MOUNT HOLYOKE.

parallel, and their western parts generally precipitous, so that in many places the country seems divided by stupendous walls. Immense masses of ruins are collected at their feet. These consist sometimes of entire cliffs and pillars of many tons weight, which are thrown off by the freezing of water in the gullies, and often fall with a mighty concussion into the valleys. On the opposite side there is generally a slope covered with trees. In Meriden is a natural ice-house, in a narrow defile, between ridges of greenstone. The defile is choked up with the ruins of the rocks which have fallen from the

ridges, and form a series of cavities overgrown with trees, and strewn with thick beds of leaves. The ice is formed in the cavities of these rocks, and remains the whole year. A portion of it melts during summer, causing a stream of cold water perpetually to flow from the spot. The space between the mountains is called Cat Hollow, and presents the most wild and picturesque scenery in the State." The principal peaks are Mount Tom, near Litchfield, and Bald Mountain in the extreme northern part of the State.

The entire southern border is washed by Long Island Sound, into which flow the principal rivers of the State. There are several good harbors along the Sound, of which New London is the best, though New Haven Bay is the largest.

The Connecticut River enters the State from Massachusetts, and flows through it into Long Island Sound, dividing it into two unequal parts. It is navigable for a distance of 50 miles for vessels drawing eight feet of water, and much higher for steamers. The scenery of the valley of this stream is very beautiful in many places; Hartford, Middletown, and Haddam are the principal places on its banks.

The Housatonic River flows through the western part of the State into the Sound. It is navigable for 12 miles for small vessels. It rises in the northern part of Berkshire county, Mass., and in its course through Connecticut receives a number of small tributaries, which drain the little lakes or ponds, which are quite numerous in Litchfield county. The whole region through which it flows is noted for the beauty of its scenery, and the healthfulness of its climate. It is a region of bold hills and lovely valleys, through which the merry little streams come leaping to join the main river. The falls of the Housatonic, 67 miles from its mouth, are 60 feet in height, and are among the most beautiful in America.

The Thames River is formed by the junction of the Quinebaug, Shetucket, and Yantic rivers, near Norwich, in New London county, and is about 14 miles long. It flows southward into the Sound. At its mouth it widens into the fine harbor of New London, which is the best in the State. It is navigable for its entire length. Norwich and New London are its principal towns.

Nearly all the rivers of the State furnish excellent water-power.

MINERALS.

Connecticut is very rich in mineral deposits. Granite abounds, and marble of an excellent quality is found. The chrysoberyl and the

precious beryl are found near Haddam, and the columbite near Middletown. Dr. Frankfort, of Middletown, thus sums up the mineral resources of the State :

“The State of Connecticut may be geologically divided into two, large fields, the first of which is composed of the unstratified and metamorphic rocks, and the other of those secondary strata which, under the name of ‘freestone,’ are so extensively quarried in different parts of the State for building purposes, and constitute the *new red sandstone* of Lyell. The best place to study this peculiar formation is near Portland, in Middlesex county. In the vicinity of the new red sandstone, are to be found in nearly every part of the State, large dykes of trap, which protrude and traverse it, as for example, at Meriden. This gives Connecticut a great analogy to the Lake Superior copper region, in which large veins of native copper, unequalled as yet in any other part of the world, are found nearly always at the junction of these trapdykes with the red sandstone. From this fact we might expect that in Connecticut, also similar deposits of copper would exist. In several instances indeed, the vestiges of the presence of such have been found ; as, for example, near New Haven, where a large mass of native copper was discovered ; and also near Meriden, where ancient excavations made in search of copper may be seen. The State is very rich in mining resources, as veins of the different metals have been discovered, and more will undoubtedly be found. In every part of the world, such veins are chiefly known to exist where the metamorphic strata are in junction with the secondary ; and the mineral veins of Connecticut are near these junctions, of which a great many may be found throughout the State. The following is a brief statement of the different localities in which valuable minerals are known to exist in veins or deposits. Gold has been found in small quantities in Middle Haddam, Middlesex county ; silver, in the argentiferous lead ore of the Middletown mines, now extensively worked. One of the richest copper mines in the United States has been worked in Bristol, Hartford county, for ten years. The ores found here are chiefly sulphurets. Copper deposits also exist near Litchfield, Simsbury, Plymouth, Granby, Farmington and Middletown. Lead occurs, as galena, at the mines near Middletown ; also near Wilton and Brookfield, and near Monroe, Fairfield county. Iron is mined at Salisbury, where large furnaces are supplied with ‘brown hematite,’ the ore chiefly found at the mines. Roxbury furnishes an excellent ore, from which the very best of steel could be manufactured, if the large deposits of pure spathic

iron, known to exist there, should be worked. Bismuth is found at different places in the town of Monroe. The only vein containing these valuable metals (cobalt and nickel) in abundance in the United States is in the town of Chatham, where at present extensive mining operations for their extraction are carried on.”*

CLIMATE.

The climate is severe in winter, but pleasant in summer, owing to the cool sea breeze which mitigates the heat. The spring comes earlier than in the other New England States, but is accompanied by keen northeast winds, which are neither pleasant nor healthful.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

Except in the valleys of the principal rivers, the soil of Connecticut is not remarkable for fertility. In the river valleys the lands are very good, especially along the Connecticut River. The northwestern part of the State is devoted to dairy farming and grazing. Agriculture receives great attention in this State, and the soil is skilfully and industriously tilled.

In 1869, there were 1,830,808 acres of improved, and 673,457 acres of unimproved land in Connecticut. The other agricultural products were stated as follows for the same year :

Cash value of farms,	\$125,000,000
Value of farming implements and machinery,	3,500,000
Number of horses,	40,150
“ asses and mules,	110
“ milch cows,	99,350
“ other cattle,	112,680
“ sheep,	118,300
“ swine,	90,450
Value of domestic animals,	\$17,311,009
Bushels of wheat,	75,000
“ rye,	837,000
“ Indian corn,	1,950,000
“ oats,	2,100,000
“ Irish potatoes,	2,500,000
“ barley,	25,000
“ buckwheat,	270,000
Pounds of tobacco,	6,000,000
“ wool,	350,000

* Lippincott's Gazetteer, p. 489.

Pounds of butter,	7,620,912
" cheese,	3,898,411
" maple sugar,	44,259
" beeswax and honey,	67,101
Gallons of wine,	46,783
Tons of hay,	750,000

COMMERCE.

Connecticut possesses little or no foreign commerce of her own, her trade with other countries, except that with the West Indies, being conducted almost entirely through the ports of New York and Boston. An active trade is maintained with the principal ports of the American coast, especially with New York. In 1863, the total tonnage owned in the State was 110,033. In 1861, the total exports of Connecticut amounted to \$421,320, and the imports to \$753,309.

MANUFACTURES.

Connecticut is extensively engaged in manufactures, and contains, perhaps, more small establishments conducted by persons of moderate capital than any of the New England States. The products of these little factories make up an imposing sum total, which compares favorably with that of the States containing larger establishments. The wooden clocks of this State (to say nothing of its "wooden nutmegs") are famous, and of late years have even been exported to Europe. "Nearly all the inhabitants are directly or indirectly interested in some kind of manufactures. It is the genius of the people to attend to a multiplicity of pursuits, and consequently, while all are busy, undertakings on a large scale are seldom made. More recently, however, combined capital, aided by men of means from other States, has much enlarged manufacturing operations. Much of the machinery used is the fruit of the inventions and improvements by the manufacturers themselves, among whom we need mention but the names of Whitney, Goodyear and Colt. The people are always contriving and enthusiastic in whatever they undertake. The most extensive manufactures are those of iron, clocks, carriages and india-rubber goods; iron of all possible varieties, from the heaviest castings to the finest cutlery, including anchors and boilers, firearms, edge-tools, wire, etc. Connecticut has almost engrossed the manufacture of clocks for our whole country, and for a large part of the civilized world. . . . The genius of Goodyear and of his co-laborers, has given greater variety to

the manufactures of India rubber than of almost any other known substance. In the manufacture of carriages, Connecticut is second to no State in the Union.”*

In 1870, there were in the State 5128 establishments devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts, employing 89,523 hands, and a capital of \$95,281,278; using raw material worth \$86,419,517, and yielding an annual product of \$191,065,474. There were 111 cotton mills, employing 4734 male and 2909 female hands, and a capital of \$12,710,700, consuming raw material worth \$8,818,651; paying \$3,246,783 for labor; and yielding an annual product of \$14,026,334. There were 103 woollen mills, employing 7285 male and 4247 female hands, and a capital of \$12,490,400; consuming raw material worth \$11,016,925; paying \$2,800,120 for labor; and yielding an annual product of \$17,365,148. The other manufactures are stated as follows in the same year:

Value of agricultural implements,	\$1,183,947
“ pig iron,	979,125
“ rolled iron,	1,191,140
“ steam engines and machinery,	4,910,389
“ sewing machines,	3,619,000
“ sawed and planed lumber,	2,123,118
“ flour,	3,966,328
“ leather,	1,307,030
“ boots and shoes,	2,319,596
“ furniture,	1,103,690
“ jewelry, silverware, etc.,	4,150,000

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In the year 1868, there were 637 miles of railroad in operation in Connecticut, the total cost of which was \$24,370,000. Lines cross the State in every direction, connecting its principal towns with each other, and with New York and Boston. A continuous line skirts the shore of Long Island Sound, from which several routes diverge, at various points, to the northward. An important “Air Line” between New York and Boston is now in construction across the State.

There is but one canal in the State, and that a short one around Enfield Falls, in the Connecticut River.

* Appleton's Cyclopædia, vol. v. p. 617.

EDUCATION.

This State has always been noted for the excellence of its public school system. There is a permanent school fund, which, in 1870, amounted to \$2,044,058. The interest of this sum is applied to the support of the schools, and the remainder of the amount needed for their maintenance is raised by taxation. In 1868 there were 1645 public schools. The attendance was as follows: in the winter, 80,148, average attendance 57,117, in the summer, 73,863, average attendance 52,299. The proportion of children attending school is less than in any other New England State, and truancy prevails to such an alarming extent that the authorities of the State are urged by the Board of Education to take decisive measures to put a stop to the evil. They assert that less than one half the children of the State are found on an average in the public schools.

The school system is under the control of the State Board of Education, which consists of the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor, *ex officio*, and one person appointed by the Legislature from each of the four Congressional districts, for a term of four years. The principal executive officer is the Secretary, who is chosen by the Board, and manages its affairs, and supervises the public schools under its direction. The State is divided into 1620 educational districts, each of which is immediately in charge of a School Committee, elected by the people of the district. In order to be entitled to the benefits of the school fund, each common school must be conducted for at least six months in the year by a regularly licensed teacher.

There is a State Normal School, for the education of teachers, at New Britain, and Teachers' Institutes are held in various parts of the State under the direction of the Secretary of the Board of Education. The Commonwealth makes an appropriation of \$3000 per annum to defray their expenses. Seven cities, and several of the large towns, support public high schools.

There are 35 incorporated academies, and a number of flourishing private schools in the State.

Connecticut contains three colleges, Yale College, at New Haven, Trinity College, at Hartford, and Wesleyan University, at Middletown. The first is a Congregationalist, the second an Episcopal, and the third a Methodist institution.

Yale College was originally located at Killingworth, and was founded in 1700. It was removed to Saybrook in 1707, and to New



YALE COLLEGE, NEW HAVEN.

Haven in 1716. It embraces five schools, the academical, theological, medical, law school, and the school of science and the arts. Each of these has its own faculty. It is one of the best institutions of its kind in the Union, but is considerably hampered in its usefulness by a lack of means. Recently, however, it has received some assistance from the State and from private individuals.

Trinity College was founded in 1823, is located at Hartford, and is under the direction of the Episcopal Church. The college is in a prosperous condition, and ranks high amongst the institutions of its kind in the Union.

The Wesleyan University, at Middletown, is a flourishing institution under the direction of the Methodists. The course is similar to that of other first-class colleges.

In 1867 there were 490 libraries in the State (of which 194 were public), containing 404,206 volumes. In the same year there were

55 periodicals published in the State—45 political, 3 religious, 5 literary, and 2 miscellaneous. Of these, 14 were daily, 1 semi-weekly, 37 weekly, 1 monthly, and 2 quarterly. Their aggregate annual circulation was 9,555,672 copies.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The State Prison is located at Wethersfield. The inmates work in silence during the day, and are confined in separate cells at night. Their labor is let out to contractors, and in 1868 the earnings of the institution were slightly in excess of its expenses. The commutation system is carried out here with great success, and concerts and other healthful entertainments are occasionally given in the prison by benevolent citizens. In March, 1870, there were 219 convicts confined here.

The American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, at Hartford, is the oldest as well as one of the best institutions of its kind in America. It was incorporated in 1816, and opened the next year. In 1819 it received from Congress an endowment of 23,000 acres of land, and the Legislatures of several of the States made liberal provisions for it, upon the condition that they should each have the privilege of placing a certain number of pupils under its care. This arrangement is still in operation.

“In the earlier periods of instruction much use was made of the system of methodical signs, so carefully elaborated by Dr. L’Epee and Sicard, in which each word had a definite and fixed sign, and could be given in the proper order in the sentence. These signs were greatly simplified and improved by Mr. Gallaudet and his early associates. His successors continued to introduce such modifications and improvements as the experience of intelligent teachers suggested. The methods now pursued have the same general ends in view as at first, that is, to enable the pupils to hold communication with society by means of written language, but they secure this result earlier and more satisfactorily by leading the pupil sooner to use forms of connected language. Special attention has been given from the first to the religious and moral culture of the pupils.”

The average annual attendance at this institution is about 250. Nearly 1500 pupils have attended it since its establishment.

The Retreat for the Insane, at Hartford, is supported in part by the State, and was incorporated in 1822. A *General Hospital for the Insane* has been established by the State at Middletown, on the

banks of the Connecticut River, and is now in operation. In 1868 the number of patients at the Hartford Retreat was 413. Patients are maintained here by some of the other Eastern States.

The State Reform School, at West Meriden, was opened in 1854. Boys between ten and sixteen years of age, convicted of offences, other than those for which the penalty is imprisonment for life, may be sent to this school, and parents and guardians may indenture unruly youths to the school by paying a sum of \$3 a week while they continue their connection with it. The boys are required to be in the school-room four hours each day, where they are thoroughly taught in the various branches of a plain, practical education, and for several hours are engaged in the workshop and on the farm. The receipts of their labor in 1870 were as follows: from the farm, \$1087; from the workshop, \$20,887. In March, 1870, there were 267 boys in the school.

The State supports in part a School for Imbeciles, at Lakeville, and three Homes for Soldiers' Orphans, located at Darien, Cromwell, and Mansfield, and makes an annual appropriation for the support of patients at the Perkins Institution for the Blind, at Boston.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, the total value of church property in Connecticut, was \$13,428,109. The number of churches was 902.

FINANCES.

In 1874, the public debt, over and above the assets of the State, was \$5,014,500, having been reduced one-half since the close of the civil war. There is no floating debt. The receipts of the Treasury for the fiscal year ending March 31st, 1874, were \$1,762,427. In 1868, there were 88 banks in the State (6 of which were State banks), with an aggregate capital of \$25,994,220.

GOVERNMENT.

The Constitution of Connecticut was adopted in 1818. Every male white citizen 21 years old and able to read any article of the Constitution, who shall have resided in the State one year and in the town six months, may vote, upon taking the oath required by law.

The Government of the State is conducted by a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, and Comptroller, and a Legislature, consisting of a Senate (of not less than 18 nor more

than 24 members), and a House of Representatives (of 237 members), all chosen annually by the people, on the first Monday in April. They enter upon their offices on the first Wednesday in May.

The Legislature holds annual sessions at Hartford, the capital of the State.

There is a *Supreme Court of Errors*, composed of one Chief Judge and three Associate Judges. Appeals from the lower courts are heard and decided in this body. Its judgment is final and conclusive.

The *Superior Court* consists of six judges, exclusive of those who are judges of the Supreme Court, and has cognizance of all cases, civil or criminal. In criminal cases, where death is the penalty of the crime for which the prisoner is on trial, the court is required by law to be composed of two judges, one of whom must be a judge of the Supreme Court.

The judges of these courts are elected on joint ballot by the Legislature, and hold office for a period of eight years. Upon reaching the age of 70 years, they are disqualified by the Constitution from holding office.

Hartford is the capital of Connecticut. For purposes of government, the State is divided into 8 counties

HISTORY.

In 1633, the Dutch built a trading house at Hartford, and defended it by a fort. As early as 1631, however, Seguin, the chief of the Indians who owned the lands along the Connecticut River, had sent messengers to Governor Winthrop, at Boston, and Governor Winslow, at Plymouth, inviting them to come and settle his country. His invitation was accepted, and the present town of Windsor, above Hartford, was founded in 1633, by a company from Plymouth, who built a trading house there. This is regarded as the first permanent settlement of the State, although the Dutch trading post was in existence at the time. The first town which was built, however, was Wethersfield, which was established by a company of emigrants from Massachusetts, in 1634. By 1633, three towns, Wethersfield, Windsor, and Hartford, were established, with an aggregate population of 750 inhabitants.

In 1638, New Haven was settled by emigrants from England, and continued to form an establishment distinct from that of Hartford until 1662, when Charles II. united the two colonies under one government.

In 1637, the settlers of the Hartford or Connecticut colony were greatly harassed by the Pequot Indians. The authorities resolved to put an effectual stop to their depredations, and a levy of 90 men, half the number of able-bodied males in the colony, was ordered. This force was well armed, and placed under the orders of Captain John Mason, who at once made a descent upon the main stronghold of the Pequots, and inflicted upon them a blow that completely destroyed them as a tribe. The locality where this encounter took place is known as Mystic. The effect of this decisive action was most happy as regarded the other tribes.

In 1639, the colony of Connecticut adopted its first Constitution; and in 1662, Governor John Winthrop obtained from Charles II. a charter uniting the colonies of Connecticut and New Haven under one government, the name of the former being given to the whole province. New Haven at first opposed the measure, but at length consented to it in 1665, when the union was finally accomplished. "The charter granted the colony jurisdiction over the lands within its limits; provided for the election of a governor, deputy-governor, and 12 assistants, and 2 deputies from each town—substantially the same as provided for under the previous Constitution; allowed the free transportation of colonists and merchandize from England to the colony; guaranteed to the colonists the rights of English citizens; provided for the making of laws and organization of courts by the general assembly, and the appointment of all necessary officers for the public good; the organization of a soldiery, providing for the public defence, etc. This charter was of so general a character, and conferred so large powers, that no change was necessary when Connecticut took her stand as one of the independent States of the Union, on the declaration of independence in 1776; but it was continued, without alteration, as the Constitution of the State until 1818, when the present Constitution was formed. Until 1670, at the general election, all the freemen assembled at Hartford, and personally voted for the State officers and assistants. Thereafter they voted by proxy, or sent up their votes. In July, 1685, a writ of *quo warranto* was issued by the King's Bench, and served on the governor and company, with the design of taking away the charter and uniting the New England colonies in one government under a royal governor. Sir Edmund Andros arrived in Boston, December 19th, 1686, with his commission as governor. In October, 1687, he came to Hartford, while the assembly was sitting, and demanded the charter. It was produced and laid upon the table.

The discussion was protracted into the evening. Suddenly the lights were extinguished, and Captain Joseph Wadsworth seized and carried away the charter and hid it in the famous charter-oak. Andros seized the government, which he administered, or rather it was administered under him, in a very oppressive manner. On the dethronement of James II., and the consequent deposition of Andros, the government, on May 9th, 1689, resumed its functions, as if the period since the usurpation of Andros to that time, were annihilated; and as the charter had not in the King's Court been declared forfeit, it was, after a struggle, allowed to continue in force, the freest Constitution ever granted by royal favor."

During the wars with the French and Indians, the colony bore a liberal share of the burdens, and warmly supported the cause of American independence during the Revolution, in which struggle the shores of Long Island Sound suffered severely from the depredations of the British. New Haven was captured, and its inhabitants barbarously treated, and New London and Groton were taken and burned by a force under Benedict Arnold.

In 1814; the famous New England Convention met at Hartford, and during this and the preceding year New London was closely blockaded by the British fleet.

During the recent Rebellion, Connecticut contributed 54,468 men to the military service of the United States.

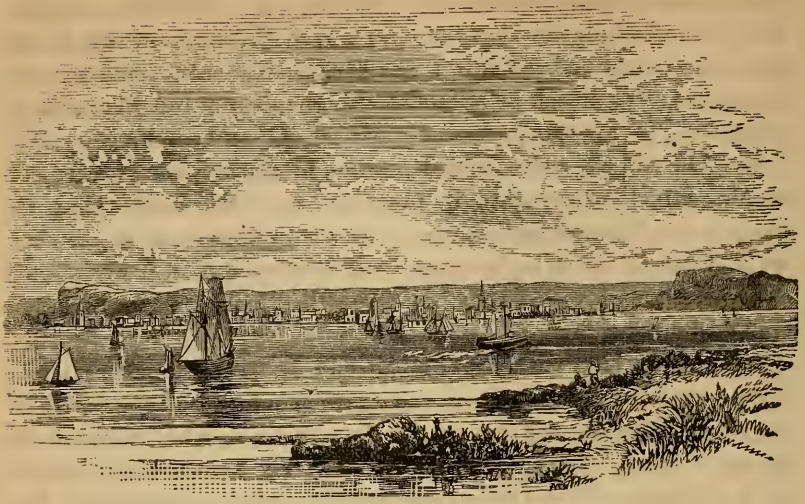
CITIES AND TOWNS.

The important cities and towns are, New London, Norwich, Middletown, Bridgeport, Waterbury, Stonington, Guilford, Danbury, Greenwich, Sharon, Meriden, Windsor Locks, Bristol, Falls Village, New Hartford, Norfolk, Greenville, Deep River, and New Milford.

NEW HAVEN,

The largest and much the most important city in the State, is situated on a harbor of considerable size, 4 miles distant from Long Island Sound. It is in New Haven county, and is 76 miles northeast of New York, and 160 miles southwest of Boston. It is on the line of direct communication between those two cities, and from it railways diverge to all parts of New England.

"The country round New Haven is very picturesque. Behind the town, at a distance of about two miles, is an amphitheatre of rugged hills, not unlike some of our Scottish scenery; in front is an inlet from



NEW HAVEN.

Long Island Sound, affording a safe and commodious harbor; to the right and left, a richly cultivated country, relieved by patches of forest; and, in wide expanse before it, the blue waves of the sea rolling in magnificence. Two large precipices, called East and West Rock, 400 feet high, and about two miles apart, form part of the semicircular range. They are prominent features in the landscape; and events in the annals of our native country, with which they are associated, impart to them that traditional charm which is so often wanting in American scenery. In the fastnesses of these rocks, some of the regicides of Charles I. found shelter from their pursuers, when the agents of his profligate son hunted them for their lives." * Several small streams flow into New Haven Bay, as the harbor is called. Several bridges span them, and connect the city with the opposite shores.

New Haven extends back about 2 miles from the harbor, and is about 3 miles broad from east to west. It is regularly laid out, and is one of the handsomest cities in America.

The streets are unusually broad, and are shaded with the most magnificent elms in the New World. Temple street, and some other thoroughfares, are so thickly shaded that the rays of the sun rarely penetrate the thick foliage overhead. The abundance of these trees

* Duncan's Travels.

has gained for New Haven the sobriquet of "The City of Elms." There are several fine public squares within the corporate limits, and also one or two very beautiful cemeteries. The residences are surrounded by large grounds handsomely ornamented and planted with a luxuriant shrubbery.

The principal public buildings are the State House, a stuccoed edifice, modelled after the Parthenon; and the City Hall, facing the green, a handsome Gothic edifice of Portland and Nova Scotia stone. The tower, 84 feet high, is surmounted by a spire 66 feet high, which contains an observatory and an alarm bell. The churches, 32 in number, are very handsome, and form conspicuous and attractive features in the general appearance of the city.

New Haven contains several excellent institutions of learning, besides Yale College, and has one of the best free school systems in the world. It has a good public library, 5 or 6 banks, and is lighted with gas, supplied with water, and traversed by street railways. Nine newspapers and three magazines are published here. The population is 50,840.

The city carries on an active trade with all parts of the country by means of its railroads. It has steamboat communication with New York and the towns on the Connecticut River. The harbor, though extensive and admirably sheltered, is too shallow to admit vessels of a large size. It is rapidly filling up. The General Government has made several attempts to deepen it, but it is feared that nothing can resist the course of nature, which seems to be rendering the harbor too shallow to be fit for use. A wharf, 3493 feet—the longest in the United States—has been built out into the bay to accommodate vessels, but the water surrounding it is becoming very shallow. In spite of these disadvantages, however, the city possesses some foreign commerce, and an active coasting trade.

New Haven is extensively engaged in manufactures, and it is estimated that fully one-fourth of the entire population is so employed. The principal wares produced are carriages, india-rubber goods, iron ware of various kinds, boots and shoes, and clocks.

"The chief ornament and attraction of New Haven remains to be noticed,—its college, the rival of Harvard University in literary respectability, and honorably distinguished from it by the orthodoxy of its religious character. The buildings of Yale College make a conspicuous appearance, when entering the town eastward; and the effect is considerably heightened by three churches, which stand at a little

distance in front, in a parallel line. The ground between the college and the churches is neatly divided and enclosed, and ornamented with trees. Including passage-ways, the principal edifices present a front of upwards of 800 feet. The buildings are chiefly constructed of brick, and consist of five spacious edifices, each four stories high, 104 feet by 40, containing 32 studies; a chapel for religious worship and ordinary public exhibitions; a Lyceum, containing the library and recitation rooms; an Athenæum; a Chemical Laboratory; an extensive stone Dining Hall, containing also in the upper story, apartments for the mineralogical cabinet; a separate Dining Hall for Theological Students; a dwelling house for the President; a large stone building occupied by the medical department; and the *Trumbull Gallery*, a neat and appropriate building erected as a repository for the valuable historical and other paintings of Col. Trumbull.

“Yale College was originally established at Saybrook, in the year 1700, and was incorporated by the colonial legislature in the following year. The project of establishing a college in Connecticut appears to have been seriously entertained fifty years before; but it was checked, Dr. Dwight informs us, by well founded circumstances, by the people of Massachusetts, who justly urged that the whole population of New England was scarcely sufficient to support one institution of this nature, and that the establishment of a second would endanger the prosperity of both; these objections put a stop to the design for the time; it was not, however, lost sight of. In 1718, the infant Institution was removed by the Trustees to New Haven. It was originally intended simply for the education of young men for the ministry: but, as it gathered strength from individual liberality and public patronage, the range of its plan of study was gradually extended, until it now embraces the more essential parts of a complete literary, scientific, and medical education.

“The college received its name, in commemoration of the beneficence of the Honorable Elihu Yale, a son of one of the first settlers, who went to England in early life, and thence to India, where he became governor to Madras; and on his return to England, he was elected governor of the East India Company. From this gentleman the college received donations at various times, between 1714 and 1718, to the amount of £500 sterling; and a short time before his death, he directed another benefaction to the same amount to be transmitted, but it was never received. Another of its early benefactors was the celebrated Dean Berkeley, afterwards Bishop of Cloyne, who

came to America in 1732, for the purpose of establishing a college in the island of Bermuda; a project to which he nobly sacrificed considerable property, as well as time and labor. His efforts being frustrated by the failure of the promised support from Government, he presented to this Institution a farm which he had purchased in Rhode Island, and afterwards transmitted to it from England a very valuable collection of books—"the finest that ever came together at one time into America." Sir Isaac Newton, and many other distinguished men, presented their works to the library.

"Although founded under the sanction of the colonial legislature, and partly endowed by it, the college was for a long time indebted for its support chiefly to individual patronage: the whole amount bestowed by the colonial legislature, during the first 90 years of its existence, did not much exceed £4500 sterling. But when the Federal Government was consolidated, a grant was made, in 1792, to Yale College, out of a fund created by uncollected arrears of war taxes, by which ultimately \$60,000 were realized.

"The library of the college has recently been much enlarged by the addition of many valuable volumes, selected by Professor Kingsley, who visited Europe with reference to that selection. The libraries of the different societies receive frequent additions. At present the libraries belonging to the institution form an aggregate of from 30,000 to 40,000 volumes. The college possesses the richest mineralogical cabinet on the continent." *

The city was founded as a separate colony, in 1638, by a company of emigrants from London. It was incorporated as a city in 1784.

During the Revolution, it was captured by the British. This occurrence took place on the 5th of July, 1779, and is thus described in the *Connecticut Journal*, of July 7th—two days later:

About two o'clock on the morning of the 5th instant, a fleet consisting of the *Camilla* and *Scorpion* men-of-war, with tenders, transports, etc., to the number of 48, commanded by Commodore Sir George Collier, anchored off West Haven. They had on board about 3000 land forces, commanded by Major-General Tryon; about 1500 of whom, under Brigadier-General Garth, landed about sunrise on West Haven point. The town being alarmed, all the preparation which the confusion and distress of the inhabitants, and a necessary care of their families would permit, was made for resistance. The West Bridge on Milford road was taken up, and several fieldpieces were carried thither, and some slight works thrown up for the defence of that pass. The division under General Garth being landed, immediately began their march toward the town. The first opposition was made

* The Land We Live In, pp. 153-154.

by about 25 of the inhabitants, to an advanced party of the enemy of two companies of light infantry. These, though advancing on the height of Milford hill, were attacked with great spirit by the handful of our people, and driven back almost to West Haven, and one of them was taken prisoner. The enemy then advanced in their main body, with strong flanking parties, and two fieldpieces; and finding a smart fire kept up from our fieldpieces at the bridge aforesaid, chose not to force an entrance to the town by that, the usual road, but to make a circuitous march of nine miles, in order to enter by the Derby road. In this march our small party on Milford hill, now increased to perhaps 150, promiscuously collected from several companies of the militia, had a small encounter with the enemy's flank near the Milford road, in which was killed their adjutant, Campbell, the loss of whom they lamented with much apparent sensibility. Our people on the hill, being obliged by superior numbers, to give way, kept up a continual fire on the enemy, and galled them much, through all their march to Thomson's bridge on the Derby road. In the mean time, those who were posted at the West bridge, perceiving the movements of the enemy, and also that another large body of them had landed at the South End, on the east side of the harbor, quitted the bridge and marched thence to oppose the enemy at Thomson's bridge. But by the time they had reached the bank of the river, the enemy were in possession of the bridge, and the places at which the river is here fordable: yet having received a small accession of strength by the coming in of the militia, they gave the enemy a smart fire from two fieldpieces and small arms, which continued with little abatement, till the enemy were in possession of the town, or through the town across the Neck bridge. The enemy entered the town between 12 and 1 o'clock. In the mean time, the division of the enemy, before-mentioned to have landed at the South End, which was under the immediate command of General Tryon, was bravely resisted by a small party of men, with one fieldpiece, who, besides other execution, killed an officer of the enemy, in one of the boats at their landing. This division marched up by land, and attacked the fort at Black Rock; at the same time, their shipping drew up, and attacked it from the harbor. The fort had only 19 men, and three pieces of artillery, yet was defended as long as reason or valor dictated, and then the men made good their retreat.

The town being now in full possession of the enemy, it was delivered up, except a few instances of protection, to promiscuous plunder; in which, besides robbing the inhabitants of their watches, money, plate, buckles, clothing, bedding, and provisions, they broke and destroyed their household furniture to a very great amount. Some families lost every thing their houses contained: many have now neither food, nor clothes to shift.

A body of militia sufficient to penetrate the town, could not be collected that evening: we were obliged therefore to content ourselves with giving the enemy every annoyance in our power, which was done with great spirit for most of the afternoon at and about the Ditch corner.

Early on Tuesday morning, the enemy unexpectedly and with the utmost stillness and despatch, called in their guards, and retreated to their boats, carrying with them a number of the inhabitants captive, most, if not all of whom, were taken without arms, and a few who chose to accompany them. Part of them went on board their fleet, and part crossed over to General Tryon at East Haven. On Tuesday afternoon, the militia collected in such numbers, and crowded so close upon General Tryon, that he thought best to retreat on board his fleet, and set sail to the westward.

The loss of the enemy is unknown ; but for many reasons it is supposed to be considerable, and includes some officers whom they lament, besides Adjutant Campbell. Ours, by the best information we can obtain, is 27 killed, and 19 wounded. As many of our dead upon examination appeared to have been wounded with shot, but not mortally, and afterwards to have been killed with bayonets, this demonstrated the true reason why the number of the dead exceeded that of the wounded to be, that being wounded and falling into the enemy's hands, they were afterwards killed. A further confirmation of this charge is, that we have full and direct testimony, which affirms that General Garth declared to one of our militia, who was wounded and taken, that "he was sorry his men had not killed him, instead of taking him ; and that he would not have his men give quarter to one militia man, taken in arms."

Although in this expedition, it must be confessed to the credit of the Britons that they have not done all the mischief in their power, yet, the brutal ravishment of women, the wanton and malicious destruction of property, the burning of the stores upon the wharf, and eight houses in East Haven ; the beating, stabbing, and insulting of the Rev. Dr. Daggett, after he was made a prisoner, the mortally wounding of Mr. Beers, senior, in his own door, and otherways abusing him ; the murdering of the very aged and helpless Mr. English in his own house ; and the beating and finally cutting out the tongue of and then killing a *distracted man*, are sufficient proofs that they were *really Britons*.

HARTFORD,

Now the capital, and the second city in the State, is situated on the right bank of the Connecticut River, 36 miles northeast of New Haven, 124 miles southwest of Boston, and 112 miles northeast of New York. On the opposite side of the river lies East Hartford, with which it is connected by a long covered bridge 1000 feet long. The city is about 2 miles long by $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles broad, and extends lengthwise along the banks of the river. It is laid off regularly in some places, and irregularly in others. Main street, the principal thoroughfare, is broad and well built up, and contains the majority of the prominent buildings. The houses are mostly of brick or freestone, and render the general appearance of the place very handsome. The city contains about 25 churches, several fine libraries, 12 or 13 banks, and is supplied with water from the Connecticut River, and is lighted with gas. A street railway connects its various points. The public schools are numerous and are of a high character. There are also several fine institutions of learning in the city, the principal of which is Trinity College, founded in 1823. It has three handsome edifices of freestone, a fine library, apparatus, and cabinet, and ranks high amongst the educational institutions of the land. The Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, the Retreat for the Insane, and the Hartford Hospital are noble institutions, and are amongst the most prominent

ornaments of the city. The old *Charter Oak* was until 1856, when it was blown down by a storm, one of the attractions of the city. There are 12 banks in Hartford, which is also the central point of a number of insurance companies, possessing a capital of between fifteen and twenty millions of dollars. A number of large book publishing houses are located here. In 1868 the gross amount employed in this business amounted to several millions of dollars.

The principal public buildings are the City Hall and the State House. The former is a handsome building, the lower part of which is used as a market-house. The State House is the finest building in the State. It is surmounted with a cupola, and is 50 feet in width, 50 in height, and 130 in length.

Hartford has railroad communication with all parts of the Union, and, except in the severe season of winter, when it is closed by ice, the Connecticut is navigable for steamers. The city is extensively engaged in manufactures. The capital employed in them is over \$10,000,000. Fire-arms and hardware of various kinds constitute the principal articles produced. The celebrated manufactory of the late Colonel Colt, the inventor of the "Colt Revolver," is located here. There are 12 newspapers published in the city. The population is 37,180, and is increasing.

Hartford was permanently settled by the English in 1635. The following is an abstract from some of the first laws of the town :

1635.—*It is ordered*, that there shall be a guard of . . . men, to attend with their arms fixed, and two shot of powder and shot, at least, . . . every public meeting for religious use, with two sergeants to oversee the same, and to keep out one of them sentinel . . . and the said guard to be freed from boarding, and to have seats provided near the meeting house door, and the sergeants repair to the magistrates for a warrant for the due execution thereof.

It is ordered, that every inhabitant which hath not freedom from the whole to be absent, shall make his personal appearance at every general meeting of the whole town, having sufficient warning ; and whosoever fails to appear at the time and place appointed, shall pay sixpence for every such default ; but if he shall have lawful excuse, it shall be repaid him again ; or whosoever departs away from the meeting before it be ended, without liberty from the whole, shall pay the likewise.

It is ordered, that whosoever borrows the town chain, shall pay two pence a day, for every day they keep the same, and pay for mending, if it be broken in their use.

It is ordered, that there shall be a set meeting of all the townsmen together the first Thursday of every month, by nine o'clock in the forenoon, so that if any inhabitant have any business with them, he may repair unto them ; and whosoever of them do not meet at the time and place set, to forfeit two shillings and sixpence for every default.

The 17th September, 1640.—*It is ordered*, that . . . Woodward shall spend his time about killing of wolves, and for his encouragement he shall have four shillings and sixpence for his board, in case he kill not a wolf, or a deer in the week; but if he kill a wolf or a deer, he is to pay for his board himself; and if he kill . . . to have it for two pence a pound. This order is made for a month before he begins. It is further ordered, that if any person hath lost any thing that he desireth should be cried in a public meeting, he shall pay for crying of it two pence to Thomas Woodford, to be paid before it be cried; and the crier shall have a book of the things that he crieth.

At a general Town Meeting in April, 1643—*It was ordered*, that Mr. Andrews should teach the children in the school one year next ensuing, from the 25th of March, 1643, and that he shall have for his pains £16; and therefore the townsmen shall go and inquire who will engage themselves to send their children; and all that do so shall pay for one quarter at the least, and for more if they do send them, after the proportion of twenty shillings the year; and if they go any weeks more than an even quarter, they shall pay sixpence a week; and if any would send their children, and are not able to pay for their teaching, they shall give notice of it to the townsmen, and they shall pay it at the town's charge; and Mr. Andrews shall keep the account between the children's schooling and himself, and send notice of the times of payment and demand it; and if his wages doth not come in so, then the townsmen must collect and pay it; or if the engagements come not to sixteen pounds, then they shall pay what is wanting, at the town's charges.

At a general Town Meeting, October 30th, 1643—*It was ordered*, that if any boy shall be taken playing, or misbehaving himself, in the time of public services, whether in the meeting house or about the walls . . . by two witnesses, for the first time shall be examined and punished at the present, publicly, before the assembly depart; and if any shall be the second time taken faulty, on witness, shall be accounted . . . Further, it is ordered, if the parents or master shall desire to correct his boy, he shall have liberty the first time to do the same.

It was further ordered, in the same general meeting, that there should be a bell rung by the watch every morning, an hour before daybreak, and that they are appointed by the constables for that purpose; shall begin at the bridge, and so ring the bell all the way forth and back from Master Moody's (Wyllys hill) to John Pratt's . . . and that they shall be in every house, one up, and . . . some lights within one quarter of an hour after the end of the bell ringing . . . if they can . . . the bell is rung before the time appointed, then to be up with lights as before mentioned, half an hour before daybreak, and for default herein is to forfeit one shilling and sixpence, to be to him that finds him faulty, and sixpence to the town.

The other cities of the State are as follows: *Norwich*, at the head of navigation, on the Thames River. It has a population of 16,653, is connected with all parts of the country by railroad, and is the terminus of a line of steamers from New York. It is actively engaged in commerce and manufactures. *Bridgeport*, on Long Island Sound, has 19,876 inhabitants, and is connected with New York by steamboat, and is on the line of the New York and New Haven Railway.

It is largely engaged in manufactures. *Waterbury*, on the Naugatuck Railway, 20 miles from New Haven, is an important place for the manufacture of brass, German silver, buttons, and other small articles. It contains a population of 10,876. *New London*, on the Thames River, has 9756 inhabitants. It is a thriving manufacturing place, and is actively engaged in commerce, both foreign and domestic, having the best harbor in the State. *Norwalk*, on Long Island Sound, on the line of the New York and New Haven Railway, has a population of about 15,000, and is extensively engaged in manufactures. *Middletown*, on the Connecticut River (35 miles from its mouth), and *West Meriden*, on the Hartford and New Haven Railway (16 miles from New Haven), each has a population of 10,000; they are growing manufacturing cities.

MISCELLANIES.

THE BLUE LAWS OF CONNECTICUT.

The following is a transcript of the principal part of the celebrated judicial code, known as the *Blue Laws*, by which it is said the first colonists of Connecticut were governed for a considerable time. Some writers have questioned the genuineness of the laws, and it seems certain that, if genuine, the code was never written, but was declared and interpreted by the select men, the judges, and the pastors of the different congregations :

The Governor and magistrates, convened in general assembly, are the supreme power, under God, of this independent dominion.

From the determination of the assembly no appeal shall be made.

The Governor is amenable to the voice of the people.

The Governor shall have only a single vote in determining any question, except a casting vote when the assembly may be equally divided.

The assembly of the people shall not be dismissed by the Governor, but shall dismiss itself.

Conspiracy against this dominion shall be punished with death.

Whoever attempts to change or overturn this dominion, shall suffer death.

The judges shall determine controversies without a jury.

No one shall be a freeman, or give a vote, unless he be converted, or a member in free communion in one of the churches in this dominion.

No food or lodging shall be afforded to a Quaker, Adamite, or other heretic.

No one shall cross a river without an authorized ferryman.

No one shall run on a Sabbath day, or walk in his garden, or elsewhere, except reverently to and from the church.

No one shall travel, cook victuals, make beds, sweep houses, cut hair, or shave, on the Sabbath day.

No woman shall kiss her child on the Sabbath or fasting day.

A person accused of trespass in the night, shall be judged guilty, unless he clear himself by his oath.

No one shall buy or sell lands without permission of the select men.

Whoever publishes a lie to the prejudice of his neighbor, shall sit in the stocks, or be whipped fifteen stripes.

Whoever wears clothes trimmed with silver, or bone lace, above two shillings a yard, shall be presented by the grand jurors, and the select men shall tax the offender at the rate of 300*l.* estate.

Whoever brings cards or dice into this dominion shall pay a fine of 5*l.*

No one shall read Common Prayer, keep Christmas or Saint's day, make minced pies, dance, play cards, or play on any instrument of music, except the drum, the trumpet, and jews-harp.

When parents refuse their children suitable marriages, the magistrates shall determine the point.

The select men, on finding children ignorant, may take them away from their parents and put them into better hands, at the expense of the parents.

A man that strikes his wife shall pay a fine of 10*l.* ; a woman that strikes her husband shall be punished as the court directs.

Married persons must live together, or be imprisoned.

Every male shall have his hair cut round according to a cap.

THE REGICIDES.

Soon after the restoration of monarchy in England, many of the judges who had condemned King Charles I. to death, were apprehended. Thirty were condemned, and ten were executed as traitors ; two of them, Colonels Goffe and Whalley, made their escape to New England, and arrived at Boston, July, 1660. They were gentlemen of worth, and were much esteemed by the colonists for their unfeigned piety. Their manners and appearance were dignified, commanding universal respect. Whalley had been a Lieutenant-General, and Goffe a Major-General in Cromwell's army. An order for their apprehension, from Charles II., reached New England soon after their arrival. The king's commissioners, eager to execute this order, compelled the judges to resort to the woods and caves, and other hiding places ; and they would undoubtedly have been taken, had not the colonists secretly aided and assisted them in their concealments. Sometimes they found a refuge in a cave on a mountain near New Haven, and at others, in cellars of the houses of their friends, and once they were secreted under the Neck bridge, in New Haven, while their pursuers crossed the bridge on horseback.

While in New Haven, they owed their lives to the intrepidity of Mr. Davenport, the minister of the place, who, when the pursuers arrived, preached to the people from this text : "*Take council, execute judgment, make thy shadow as the night in the midst of the noonday, hide the outcasts, bewray not him that wandereth. Let my outcasts dwell with thee. Moab, be thou a covert to them from the face of the spoiler.*" Large rewards were offered for their apprehension, or for any information which might lead to it. Mr. Davenport was threatened, for it was known that he had harbored them. Upon hearing that he was in danger, they offered to deliver themselves up, and actually gave notice to the deputy governor of the place of their concealment ; but Davenport had not preached in vain, and the magistrate took no other notice than to advise them not to betray themselves. After lurking about for two or three years in and near New Haven, they found it necessary to remove to Hadley, where they were received by Mr. Russell, with whom they were concealed fifteen or sixteen years. After many hairbreadth es-

capas, the pursuit was given over, and they were finally suffered to die a natural death in their exile.

The following interesting incident is related in connection with the sojourn of the Regicides in Connecticut :

In the course of Philip's war, which involved almost all the Indian tribes in New England, and, among others, those in the neighborhood of this town, the inhabitants thought it proper to observe the 1st of September, 1675, as a day of fasting and prayer. While they were in the church, and employed in their worship, they were surprised by a band of savages. The people instantly betook themselves to their arms, which, according to the custom of the times, they had carried with them to the church ; and, rushing out, attacked the invaders. The panic under which they began the conflict was, however, so great, and their number was so disproportioned to that of their enemies, that they fought doubtfully at first, and in a short time began evidently to give way. At this moment, an ancient man, with hoary locks, of a most venerable and dignified aspect, and in address widely differing from that of the inhabitants, appeared suddenly at their head, and with a firm voice and an example of undaunted resolution, reanimated their courage, led them again to the conflict, and totally routed the savages. When the battle was ended, the stranger disappeared, and no one knew whence he had come, or whither he had gone. The relief was so timely, so sudden, so unexpected, so providential ; the appearance and retreat of him, who had furnished it, were so unaccountable ; his person was so dignified and commanding, his resolution so superior, and his interference so decisive, that the inhabitants, without any uncommon exercise of credulity, readily believed him to be an angel sent from heaven for their preservation. Nor was this opinion seriously controverted, until it was discovered, years afterwards, that Goffe and Whalley had been lodged in the house of Mr. Russell. Then it was known that their deliverer was Goffe ; Whalley having become superannuated some time before the event took place. There is an obscure and very doubtful tradition, that Goffe also was buried here.

PENALTY FOR KISSING.

In 1654, a trial took place in Connecticut, under the section of the "Blue Laws" prohibiting kissing. The culprits were Sarah Tuttle and Jacob Newton. It seems that Sarah dropped her gloves, and Jacob found them. When Sarah asked for them, Jacob demanded a kiss for his pay, and Sarah, not thinking the charge extortionate, paid it in full. Complaint was made by some sour-tempered individual, and the guilty parties were arraigned before the magistrate. The facts were clearly proved, and the parties were each fined twenty shillings.

THE DARK DAY.

The 19th of May, 1680, was remarkable for the intense darkness which prevailed throughout the New England colonies. At this time the Legislature of Connecticut was in session in Hartford. A very general opinion prevailed, that the day of judgment was at hand. The House of Representatives, being unable to transact their business, adjourned. A proposal to adjourn the council was under consideration. When the opinion of Colonel Davenport was asked, he answered, "I am against an adjournment. The day of judgment is either ap-

proaching, or it is not. If it is not, there is no cause for an adjournment; if it is, I chouse to be found doing my duty. I wish therefore that candles may be brought."

AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

The people of Connecticut resolved to maintain their independence of the Duke of York, as their charter was of prior date to that of the Duke. Detachments of militia were therefore ordered to New London and Saybrook, the troops at Saybrook being placed under the command of Captain Thomas Bull, of Hartford.

Early in July, 1675, the people of Saybrook were surprised by the appearance of Major Andros, with an armed force, in the Sound, making directly for the fort. They had received no intelligence of the hostile expedition of Andros, and having no instructions from the Governor, were undecided what course to take, when, at a critical juncture, Captain Bull with his company arrived, and preparations were at once made for the defence of the fort and town. The assembly met at Hartford on the 9th of July, and immediately drew up a protest against the proceedings of Andros, which they sent by express to Saybrook, with instructions to Captain Bull to propose to Andros a reference of the dispute to commissioners.

On the 11th, Major Andros, with several armed sloops, drew up before the fort, hoisted the king's flag on board, and demanded a surrender of the fortress and town. Captain Bull immediately raised His Majesty's colors in the fort, and arranged his men in the best manner possible. The major did not like to fire on the king's colors, and perceiving that, should he attempt to reduce the town by force, it would in all likelihood be a bloody affair, he judged it expedient not to fire upon the troops.

Early in the morning of the 12th of July, Andros desired that he might have permission to land on the shore, for the purpose of an interview with the ministers and chief officers of the town. He probably flattered himself that if he could obtain a foothold upon the soil, and then read the Duke's patent, and his own commission, to the people, it would make a serious impression upon them, and that he would be able to gain by artifice that which he could never accomplish by force of arms. He was allowed to come on shore with his suite. Captain Bull and his officers, with the officers and gentlemen of the town, met him at his landing, and informed him that they had, at that instant, received instructions to tender him a treaty, and to refer the whole matter in controversy to commissioners, capable of determining it according to law and justice. Major Andros rejected the proposal at once, and forthwith commanded, in His Majesty's name, that the Duke's patent, and the commission which he had received from His Royal Highness, should be read. Captain Bull, comprehending at once the artifice of Andros, commanded him, in His Majesty's name, to forbear the reading. And when his clerk attempted to persist in reading, Captain Bull repeated his command, with such energy of voice and manner as convinced the major that it might not be altogether safe for him to proceed.

The Yankee captain, having succeeded in silencing the valiant representative of the Duke, next informed him that he had a communication to deliver from the assembly, and he then read the protest. Governor Andros, affecting to be well pleased with the bold and soldier-like appearance of his opponent, asked, "What is your name?" He replied, "My name is Bull, sir."—"Bull!" exclaimed the governor. "It is a pity that your horns are not tipped with silver." Finding that he could make no impression upon the officers or people, and that the Legis-

lature of the colony were determined to defend themselves in the possession of their chartered rights, Andros prudently gave up his design of seizing the fort. The militia of the town courteously guarded him to his boat, and, going on board, he soon sailed for New York, and Connecticut was no more troubled by his presence or interference until after the accession of James the Second.

ELECTION DAY IN THE OLDEN TIME.

Previous to the adoption of the Constitution of 1819, the freemen of the State met annually at Hartford on the first Wednesday in May, to choose State officers. The following description of the counting of the votes, and the inauguration of the Governor, is taken from "Kendall's Travels," published in 1808:

I reached Hartford at noon, on Wednesday, the 19th of May, 1807. The city is on the west bank of the Connecticut, 50 miles above its mouth. The governor, whose family residence is on the east side of the river, at some distance from Hartford, was expected to arrive in the evening. This gentleman, whose name is Jonathan Trumbull, is the son of the late Governor Jonathan Trumbull; and though the election is annual, he has himself been three or four years in office, and will almost certainly so continue during the remainder of his life. It was known that the votes at this time were in his favor.

The governor has volunteer companies of guards, both horse and foot. In the afternoon the horse were drawn up on the bank of the river to receive him, and escort him to his lodgings. He came before sunset, and the fineness of the evening, the beauty of the river, the respectable appearance of the governor, and of the troop, the dignity of the occasion, and the decorum observed, united to gratify the spectators. The color of the clothes of the troops was blue. The governor, though on horseback, was dressed in black, but he wore a cockade in a hat, which I did not like the less, because it was in the form rather of the old school than of the new.

In the morning the foot guards were paraded in front of the State House, where they afterwards remained under arms, while the troop of horse occupied the street which is on the south side of the building. The clothing of the foot was scarlet, with white waistcoats and pantaloons; and their appearance and demeanor were military.

The day was fine, and the apartments and galleries of the State House afforded an agreeable place of meeting, in which the members of the Assembly and others awaited the coming of the governor. At about 11 o'clock his excellency entered the State House, and shortly after took his place at the head of a procession, which was made to a meeting-house or church, at something less than half a mile distant. The procession was on foot, and was composed of the person of the governor, together with the lieutenant-governor, assistants, high sheriffs, members of the lower house of the assembly, and, unless with accidental exceptions, all the clergy of the State. It was preceded by the foot guards, and followed by the horse; and attended by gazers, that, considering the size and population of the city, may be said to have been numerous. The church, which from its situation is called the South Meeting House, is a small one, and was resorted to on this occasion only because that more ordinarily used was at this time rebuilding. The edifice is of wood, alike unornamented within and without; and when filled, there was still presented to the eye nothing but what had the plainest appearance.

The military remained in the street, with the exception of a few officers, to whom no place of honor or distinction was assigned; neither the governor nor other magistrates were accompanied with any insignia of office; the clergy had no canonical costume, and there were no females in the church, except a few (rather more than twenty in number), who were stationed by themselves in a gallery opposite the pulpit, in quality of singers. A decent order was the highest characteristic that presented itself.

The pulpit, or, as it is here called, the desk, was filled by three, if not four, clergymen; a number by its form and dimensions it was able to accommodate. Of these, one opened the service with a prayer, another delivered a sermon, a third made a concluding prayer, and a fourth pronounced a benediction. Several hymns were sung; and among others an occasional one. The total number of singers was between forty and fifty.

The sermon, as will be supposed, touched upon matters of government. When all was finished, the procession returned to the State House. The clergy who walked were about a hundred in number.

It was in the two bodies of guards alone that any suitable approach to magnificence discovered itself. The governor was full dressed, in a suit of black; but the lieutenant-governor wore riding boots. All, however, was consistently plain, and in unison with itself, except the dress swords, which were worn by high sheriffs, along with their village habilaments, and of which the fashion and the materials were marvellously diversified. Arrived in front of the State House, the military formed on each side of the street; and, as the governor passed them, presented arms. The several parts of the procession now separated, each to a dinner prepared for itself at an adjoining inn; the governor, lieutenant-governor, and assistants to their table, the clergy to a second, and the representatives to a third. The time of day was about two in the afternoon.

Only a short time elapsed before business was resumed, or rather at length commenced. The General Assembly met in the council room, and the written votes being examined and counted, the names of the public officers elected were formally declared. They were in every instance the same as those which had been successful the preceding year.

This done, the lieutenant-governor administered the oath to the governor elect, who, being sworn, proceeded to administer their respective oaths to the lieutenant-governor and the rest; and here terminated the affairs of the election day. Soon after 6 o'clock, the military fired three *feu de joie*s, and were then dismissed.

On the evening following that of election day, there is an annual ball at Hartford, called the election ball; and on the succeeding Monday, a second, which is more select. The election day is a holiday throughout the State; and even the whole remainder of the week is regarded in a similar light. Servants and others are now indemnified for the loss of the festivals of Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, which the principles of their church deny them. Families exchange visits, and treat their guests with slices of election cake; and thus preserve some portion of the luxuries of the forgotten feast of the Epiphany.



THE MIDDLE STATES.

NEW YORK.

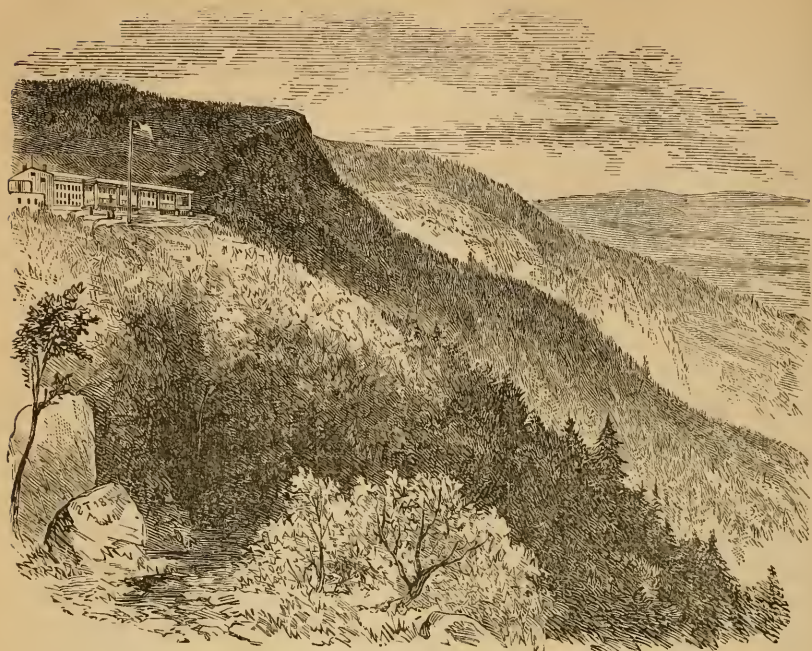
Area,	47,000 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	3,880,735
Population in 1870,	4,382,759

IN population, wealth, and variety of resources, New York is the first State in the Union. It is situated between $40^{\circ} 29' 40''$ and $45^{\circ} 0' 42''$ N. latitude, and between $71^{\circ} 51'$ and $79^{\circ} 47' 25''$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Canada and Lake Ontario; on the east by Vermont, Massachusetts, and Connecticut; on the south by the Atlantic Ocean, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania; and on the west by Pennsylvania, Lake Erie, Lake Ontario, and Canada.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The following admirable sketch of the topographical features of the State is taken from French's "Gazetteer of the State of New York :"

Surface.—This State lies upon that portion of the Appalachian Mountain system where the mountains generally assume the character of hills, and finally sink to a level of the low-lands that surround the great depression filled by Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence River. Three distinct mountain masses or ranges enter the State from the south and extend across it in a generally northeast direction. The first or most easterly of these ranges—a continuation of the Blue Ridge of Virginia—enters the State from New Jersey, and extends northeast through Rockland and Orange counties to the Hudson, appears on the east side of that river, and forms the highlands of Putnam and Dutchess counties. A northerly extension of the same mountains passes into the Green Mountains of western Massachusetts and Vermont. This range culminates in the highlands upon the Hud-



SCENE ON CATSKILL MOUNTAINS.

son. The highest peaks are 1000 to 1700 feet above tide. . . . The deep gorge formed by the Hudson in passing through this range presents some of the finest scenery in America, and has often been compared to the celebrated valley of the Rhine.

“The second series of mountains enters the State from Pennsylvania, and extends northeast through Sullivan, Ulster, and Greene counties, terminating and culminating in the Catskill Mountains upon the Hudson. The highest peaks are 3000 to 3800 feet above tide; the Shawangunk Mountains, a high and continuous ridge extending between Sullivan and Orange counties and into the south part of Ulster, is the extreme east range of this series. The Helderberg and Hellibark Mountains are spurs extending north from the main range into Albany and Schoharie counties. . . . The declivities are steep and rocky; and a large share of the surface is too rough for cultivation. The highest peaks overlook the Hudson, and from their summits are obtained some of the finest views in eastern New York.

“The third series of mountains enters the State from Pennsylvania and extends northeast through Broome, Delaware, Otsego, Schoharie,

Montgomery, and Herkimer counties to the Mohawk, and appears upon the north side of that river, and extends northeast, forming the whole series of highlands that occupy the northeast part of the State and generally known as the Adirondack Mountain region. South of the Mohawk, this mountain system assumes the form of broad, irregular hills, occupying a wide space of country. It is broken by the deep ravines of the streams, and in many places the hills are steep and nearly precipitous. The valley of the Mohawk breaks the continuity of the range, though the connection is easily traced at Little Falls, the Noses, and other places. North of the Mohawk, the highlands extend northeast in several distinct ranges, all terminating upon Lake Champlain. The culminating point of the whole system, and the highest mountain in the State, is Mount Marcy, 5467 feet above the tide. The mountains are usually wild, rugged, and rocky. A large share of the surface is entirely unfit for cultivation; but the region is rich in minerals, and especially in an excellent variety of iron ore. West of these ranges, series of hills forming spurs of the Alleghanies enter the State from Pennsylvania, and occupy the entire south half of the western part of the State. An irregular line extending through the southerly counties, forms the watershed that separates the northern and southern drainage; and from it the surface gradually declines northward until it finally terminates in the level of Lake Ontario. The portion of the State lying south of this watershed, and occupying the greater part of the two southerly tiers of counties, is entirely occupied by these hills. Along the Pennsylvania line they are usually abrupt and are separated by narrow ravines, but toward the north their summits become broader and less broken. A considerable portion of the highland region is too steep for profitable cultivation, and is best adapted to grazing. The highest summits in Allegany and Cattaraugus counties are 2000 to 3000 feet above tide.

“From the summits of the watershed the highlands usually descend toward Lake Ontario in series of terraces, the edges of which are the outcrops of the different rocks which underlie the surface. These terraces are usually smooth, and, although inclined toward the north, the inclination is generally so slight that they appear to be level. Between the hills of the south and the level land of the north is a beautiful rolling region, the ridges gradually declining toward the north. In that part of the State south of the most eastern mountain range the surface is generally level or broken by low hills. In New York and Westchester counties, these hills are principally composed

of primitive rocks. The surface of Long Island is generally level or gently undulating. A ridge 150 to 200 feet high, composed of sand, gravel, and clay, extends east and west across the island north of the centre.

"Rivers and Lakes.—The river system of the State has two general divisions,—the first comprising the streams tributary to the great lakes and the St. Lawrence, and the second those which flow in a generally southerly direction. The watershed which separates these two systems extends in an irregular line eastward from Lake Erie through the southern tier of counties to near the northeast corner of Chemung; thence it turns northeast to the Adirondack Mountains in Essex county, thence southeast to the eastern extremity of Lake George, and thence nearly due east to the eastern line of the State.

"The northerly division has five general subdivisions. The most westerly of these comprises all the streams flowing into Lake Erie and Niagara River and those flowing into Lake Ontario west of Genesee River. In Chautauqua county the streams are short and rapid, as the watershed approaches within a few miles of Lake Erie. Cattaraugus, Buffalo, Tonawanda, and Oak Orchard creeks are the most important streams in this division. Buffalo Creek is chiefly noted for forming Buffalo Harbor at its mouth; and the Tonawanda for 12 miles from its mouth is used for canal navigation. Oak Orchard and other creeks flowing into Lake Ontario descend from the interior in a series of rapids, affording a large amount of water-power.

"The second subdivision comprises the Genesee River and its tributaries. The Genesee rises in the north part of Pennsylvania and flows in a generally northerly direction to Lake Ontario. Its upper course is through a narrow valley bordered by steep, rocky hills. Upon the line of Wyoming and Livingston counties it breaks through a mountain barrier in a deep gorge and forms the Portage Falls,—one of the finest waterfalls in the State. Below this point the course of the river is through a beautiful valley, one to two miles wide and bordered by banks 50 to 150 feet high. At Rochester it flows over the precipitous edges of the Niagara limestone, forming the Upper Genesee Falls; and three miles below, it flows over the edge of the Medina sandstone, forming the Lower Genesee Falls. The principal tributaries of this stream are Canaseraga, Honeoye, and Conesus creeks from the east, and Oatka and Black creeks from the west. Honeoye, Canadice, Hemlock, and Conesus lakes lie within the Genesee Basin.

"The third subdivision includes the Oswego River and its tribu-

taries, and the small streams flowing into Lake Ontario between Genesee and Oswego rivers. The basin of the Oswego includes most of the inland lakes which form a peculiar feature of the landscape in the interior of the State. The principal of these lakes are Cayuga, Seneca, Canandaigua, Skaneateles, Crooked, and Owasco,—all occupying long, narrow valleys, and extending from the level land in the centre far into the highland region of the south. The valleys which they occupy appear like immense ravines formed by some tremendous force, which has torn the solid rocks from their original beds, from the general level of the surrounding summits, down to the present bottoms of the lakes. Oneida and Onondaga lakes occupy basins upon the level land in the northeast part of the Oswego Basin. Mud Creek, the most westerly branch of Oswego River, takes its rise in Ontario county, flows northeast into Wayne, where it unites with Canandaigua Outlet and takes the name of Clyde River; thence it flows east to the west line of Cayuga county, where it empties into Seneca River. This latter stream, made up of the outlets of Seneca and Cayuga lakes, from this point flows in a northeast course, and receives successively the outlets of Owasco, Skaneateles, Onondaga, and Oneida lakes. From the mouth of the last-named stream it takes the name Oswego River, and its course is nearly due north to Lake Ontario.

“The fourth subdivision includes the streams flowing into Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence, east of the mouth of the Oswego. The principal of these are Salmon, Black, Oswegatchie, Grasse, and Racket rivers. These streams mostly take their rise upon the plateau of the great northern wilderness, and in their course to the lowlands are frequently interrupted by falls, furnishing an abundance of water-power. The water is usually very dark, being colored with iron and the vegetation of swamps.

“The fifth subdivision includes all the streams flowing into lakes George and Champlain. They are mostly mountain torrents, frequently interrupted by cascades. The principal streams are the Chazy, Saranac, and Au Sable rivers, and Wood Creek. Deep strata of tertiary clay extend along the shores of Lake Champlain and Wood Creek. The water of most of the streams in this region is colored by the iron over which it flows.

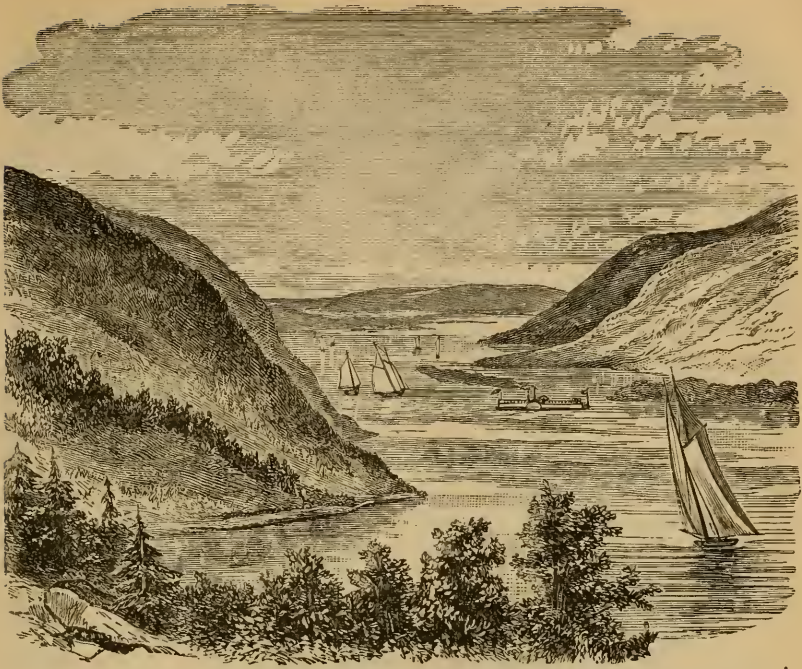
“The second general division of the river-system of the State includes the basins of the Alleghany, Susquehanna, Delaware, and Hudson. The Alleghany Basin embraces the southerly half of Chautauqua and Cattaraugus counties and the southwest corner of Alleghany. The

Allegany River enters the State from the south in the southeast corner of Cattaraugus county, flows in nearly a semicircle, with its outward curve toward the north, and flows out of the State in the southwest part of the same county. It receives several tributaries from the north and east. These streams mostly flow in deep ravines, bordered by steep, rocky hillsides. The watershed between this basin and Lake Erie approaches within a few miles of the lake, and is elevated 800 or 1000 feet above it.

"The Susquehanna Basin occupies about one-third of the south border of the State. The river takes its rise in Otsego Lake, and, flowing southwest to the Pennsylvania line, receives Charlotte River from the south and the Unadilla from the north. After a course of a few miles in Pennsylvania, it again enters the State, and flows in a general westerly direction to near the west border of Tioga county, whence it turns south and again enters Pennsylvania. Its principal tributary from the north is Chenango River. Tioga River enters the State from Pennsylvania near the east border of Steuben county, flows north, receives the Canisteo from the west and the Conhocton from the north. From the mouth of the latter the stream takes the name Chemung River, and flows in a southeast direction, into the Susquehanna in Pennsylvania, a few miles south of the State line. The upper course of these streams is generally through deep ravines bordered by steep hillsides; but below they are bordered by wide and beautiful intervals.

"The Delaware Basin occupies Delaware and Sullivan and portions of several of the adjacent counties. The north or principal branch of the river rises in the northeast part of Delaware county and flows southwest to near the Pennsylvania line; thence it turns southeast and forms the boundary of the State to the line of New Jersey. Its principal branches are the Pepacton and Neversink rivers. These streams all flow in deep, narrow ravines, bordered by steep, rocky hills.

"The Basin of the Hudson occupies about two-thirds of the east border of the State, and a large territory extending into the interior. The remote sources of the Hudson are among the highest peaks of the Adirondacks, more than 4000 feet above tide. Several of the little lakes which form reservoirs of the upper Hudson are 2500 to 3000 feet above tide. The stream rapidly descends through the narrow defiles into Warren county, where it receives from the east the outlet of Schroon Lake, and Sacondaga River from the west. Below the mouth of the latter the river turns eastward, and breaks through the



VIEW ON THE HUDSON RIVER.

barrier of the Luzerne Mountains in a series of rapids and falls. At Fort Edward it again turns south and flows with a rapid current, frequently interrupted by falls, to Troy, 160 miles from the ocean. At this place the river falls into an estuary, where its current is affected by the tide; and from this place to its mouth it is a broad, deep, sluggish stream. About 60 miles from its mouth, the Hudson breaks through the rocky barrier of the Highlands, forming the most easterly of the Appalachian Mountain Ranges; and along its lower course it is bordered on the west by a nearly perpendicular wall of basaltic rock 300 to 500 feet high, known as 'The Palisades.' Above Troy the Hudson receives the Hoosick River from the east and the Mohawk from the west. The former stream rises in western Massachusetts and Vermont, and the latter near the centre of the State. At Little Falls and the 'Noses,' the Mohawk breaks through the mountain barriers in a deep, rocky ravine; and at Cohoes, about one mile from its mouth, it flows down a perpendicular precipice of 70 feet, forming an excellent water-power. Below Troy the tributaries of the Hudson are all comparatively small streams. South of the Highlands



LAKE GEORGE.

the river spreads out into a wide expanse known as 'Tappan Bay.' A few small streams upon the extreme east border of the State flow eastward into the Housatonic; and several small branches of the Passaic River rise in the south part of Rockland county.

"Lake Erie forms a portion of the west boundary of the State. . . . The harbors upon the lake are Buffalo, Silver Creek, Dunkirk, and Barcelona. . . . Niagara River, forming the outlet of Lake Erie, is 34 miles long, and, on an average, more than a mile wide. . . . Lake Ontario forms a part of the north boundary to the west half of the State."

Between Warren and Washington counties, lies Lake George, sometimes called by its Indian name, Horicon, the most beautiful body of water in the State. It is 36 miles long, with a breadth varying from three-quarters of a mile to 4 miles. "The water is remarkably transparent, and in some parts is more than 400 feet deep. To a passenger traversing this lake, scarcely anything can be imagined

more beautiful or picturesque than the scenery along its banks. The romantic effect of the prospect is greatly enhanced by a multitude of delightful islands of various forms and sizes, which meet the gaze of the beholder on every side. Of these, if we include many little islets and rocks, there are more than 300: a popular notion prevails that their number corresponds to that of the days of the year. Twelve miles from the southwestern extremity of the lake, there is an island of about 20 acres, called, from its position, Twelve Mile Island. A mile farther north there is a high point, or tongue of land, called Tongue Mountain, west of which projects a small arm of the lake, named Northwest Bay. Here the Narrows, that is, the narrowest part of the lake, commence and continue 7 or 8 miles. Near the west end of the Narrows, on the eastern side of the lake, is Black Mountain, the summit of which is regarded as the highest point in the immediate vicinity of the lake, having an elevation of 2200 feet above its surface. About 12 miles beyond Black Mountain there is a rock about 200 feet high, rising almost perpendicularly from the surface of the water. During the French War, Major Rogers, being closely pursued by the Indians, slid down this steep declivity, and landed safely on the ice, leaving his pursuers petrified with astonishment at the dangerous exploit which they had witnessed. From this circumstance, the rock has been named Rogers' Slide. Two or three miles beyond the place just mentioned, is Lord Howe's Point, where the division of the English army under Lord Howe landed previous to their attack on Ticonderoga."

The greatest of all the natural wonders of the State, however, are the famous Falls of the Niagara, which lie partly within the limits of New York, and partly in Canada. The Niagara River, as has been stated, forms the outlet of the 4 great upper lakes, and discharges their waters which it receives through Lake Erie, into Lake Ontario. At the point where it leaves Lake Erie, the Niagara is very wide, but it narrows as it recedes from the lake, and about 16 miles from Lake Erie, it begins to contract suddenly, and the current increases in velocity. This is the beginning of the rapids, which are a mile in length. The fall of the river in this distance is 52 feet, and down this descent the immense volume of water rushes in great swells, until the Falls are reached. As it approaches the precipice, the river makes a curve from west to north, and spreads out to an extreme width of about 4750 feet. Goat Island, which extends down to the brink of the cataract, occupies about one-fourth of this space, leaving the river on the American side about 1100 feet wide, and on the Canadian side about double this

width. The line along the verge of the Canadian fall, is much longer than the breadth of this portion of the river, by reason of its horseshoe form, the curve extending up the central part of the current. In passing down the rapids the waters acquire a force which dashes them over the precipice in a grand, resistless torrent, and they fall in a magnificent curve, as they leap clear of the rocky wall into the boiling pool at its base. The fall is 164 feet on the American side, and 150 on the Canadian. The greater volume of water passes over the Canadian, or "Horseshoe Fall." The space between the cataract and the wall of rock over which it dashes, widens near the bottom, the strata being there of a loose, shaly character, and consequently hollowed out by the continual action of the spray. A cave is thus formed behind the fall, into which, on the Canadian side, persons can enter, and pass by a rough and slippery path toward Goat Island. Below the falls, the current, contracted to less than 1000 feet in width, is tossed tumultuously about, and forms great eddies and whirlpools as it sweeps down its rapidly descending bed. Small boats can pass the river in safety here, and a little steamer used to convey passengers almost to the foot of the falls. The river is crossed by two suspension bridges. One immediately below the falls, is used by vehicles and pedestrians, the other, a mile below, is used partly by these, and partly by the railway line entering Canada. Fourteen miles below, the river enters Lake Ontario.

The Falls of Niagara are unsurpassed in grandeur and magnificence by any in the world. When the state of the atmosphere is favorable, the roar of the cataract may be heard for miles. It sometimes rolls over the land to Lake Ontario, and across its waters to Toronto in Canada, 46 miles distant. Anthony Trollope has written of them as follows :

"The falls, as I have said, are made by a sudden breach in the level of the river. All cataracts are, I presume, made by such breaches ; but generally the waters do not fall precipitously as they do at Niagara, and never elsewhere, as far as the world yet knows, has a breach so sudden been made in a river carrying in its channel such or any approach to such a body of water. Up above the falls for more than a mile the waters leap and burst over rapids, as though conscious of the destiny that awaits them. Here the river is very broad and comparatively shallow ; but from shore to shore it frets itself into little torrents, and begins to assume the majesty of its power. Looking at it even here, in the expanse which forms itself over the greater fall, one



FALLS OF THE NIAGARA.

feels sure that no strongest swimmer could have a chance of saving himself if fate had cast him in even among those petty whirlpools. The waters, though so broken in their descent, are deliciously green. This color, as seen early in the morning or just as the sun has set, is so bright, as to give to the place one of its chiefest charms.

“This will be best seen from the farther end of the island—Goat Island as it is called—which, as the reader will understand, divides

the river immediately above the falls. Indeed, the island is a part of that precipitously-broken ledge over which the river tumbles, and no doubt in process of time will be worn away and covered with water. The time, however, will be very long. In the meanwhile, it is perhaps a mile round, and is covered thickly with timber. At the upper end of the island the waters are divided, and, coming down in two courses each over its own rapids, form two separate falls. The bridge by which the island is entered, is a hundred yards or more above the smaller fall. The waters here have been turned by the island, and make their leap into the body of the river below at a right angle with it—about 200 yards below the greater fall. Taken alone, this smaller cataract would, I imagine, be the heaviest fall of water known; but taken in conjunction with the other, it is terribly shorn of its majesty. The waters here are not green as they are at the larger cataract; and, though the ledge has been hollowed and bowed by them so as to form a curve, that curve does not deepen itself into a vast abyss as it does at the horseshoe up above. This smaller fall is again divided; and the visitor, passing down a flight of steps and over a frail wooden bridge, finds himself on a smaller island in the midst of it.

“But we will go at once on to the glory, and the thunder, and the majesty, and the wrath of that upper hell of waters. We are still, let the reader remember, on Goat Island—still in the States—and on what is called the American side of the main body of the river. Advancing beyond the path leading down to the lesser fall, we come to that point of the island at which the waters of the main river begin to descend. From hence across to the Canadian side the cataract continues itself in one unabated line. But the line is very far from being direct or straight. After stretching for some little way from the shore to a point in the river which is reached by a wooden bridge at the end of which stands a tower upon the rock,—after stretching to this, the line of the ledge bends inward against the flood—in, and in, and in—till one is led to think that the depth of that horseshoe is immeasurable. It has been cut with no stinting hand. A monstrous cantle has been worn back out of the centre of the rock, so that the fury of the waters converges; and the spectator, as he gazes into the hollow with wishful eyes, fancies that he can hardly trace out the centre of the abyss.

“Go down to the end of that wooden bridge, seat yourself on the rail, and there sit till all the outer world is lost to you. There is no grander spot about Niagara than this. The waters are absolutely around you. If you have that power of eye-contrivance which is so neces-

sary to the full enjoyment of scenery, you will see nothing but the water. You will certainly hear nothing else; and the sound, I beg you to remember, is not an ear-cracking, agonizing crash and clang of noises, but is melodious and soft withal, though loud as thunder. It fills your ears, and, as it were, envelops them, but at the same time you can speak to your neighbor without an effort. But at this place, and in these moments, the less of speaking, I should say, the better. There is no grander spot than this. Here, seated on the rail of the bridge, you will not see the whole depth of the fall. In looking at the grandest works of nature, and of art too, I fancy it is never well to see all. There should be something left to the imagination, and much should be half concealed in mystery. The greatest charm of a mountain range is the wild feeling that there must be strange, unknown, desolate worlds in those far-off valleys beyond. And so here, at Niagara, that converging rush of waters may fall down, down at once into a hell of rivers, for what the eye can see. It is glorious to watch them in their first curve over the rocks. They come green as a bank of emeralds, but with a fitful flying color, as though conscious that in one moment more they would be dashed into spray and rise into air, pale as driven snow. The vapor rises high into the air, and is gathered there, visible always as a permanent white cloud over the cataract; but the bulk of the spray which fills the lower hollow of that horseshoe is like a tumult of snow. This you will not fully see from your seat on the rail. The head of it rises ever and anon out of that caldron below, but the caldron itself will be invisible. It is ever so far down—far as your own imagination can sink it. But your eyes will rest full upon the curve of the waters. The shape you will be looking at is that of a horseshoe, but of a horseshoe miraculously deep from toe to heel; and this depth becomes greater as you sit there. That which at first was only great and beautiful becomes gigantic and sublime, till the mind is at a loss to find an epithet for its own use. To realize Niagara, you must sit there till you see nothing else than that which you have come to see. You will hear nothing else, and think of nothing else. At length you will be at one with the tumbling river before you. You will find yourself among the waters as though you belonged to them. The cool, liquid green will run through your veins, and the voice of the cataract will be the expression of your own heart. You will fall as the bright waters fall, rushing down into your new world with no hesitation and with no dismay; and you will rise again as the spray rises, bright, beautiful and pure. Then you will flow away in your course to the uncompassed, distant, and eternal ocean.

“When this state has been reached and has passed away, you may get off your rail and mount the tower. It is not very high, and there is a balcony at the top on which some half-dozen persons may stand at ease. Here the mystery is lost, but the whole fall is seen. It is not even at this spot brought so fully before your eye, made to show itself in so complete and entire a shape, as it will do when you come to stand near it on the Canadian shore. But I think that it shows itself more beautifully. And the form of the cataract is such, that here on Goat Island, on the American shore, no spray will reach you, though you are absolutely over the waters. But on the Canadian side, the road as it approaches the fall is wet and rotten with spray, and you, as you stand close upon the edge, will be wet also. The rainbows as they are seen through the rising cloud—for the sun’s rays, as seen through these waters, show themselves in a bow, as they do when seen through rain—are pretty enough, and are greatly loved.

“And now we will cross the water, and with this object will return by the bridge out of Goat Island, on the mainland of the American side. But as we do so, let me say that one of the great charms of Niagara consists in this: that over and above that one great object of wonder and beauty, there is so much little loveliness—loveliness especially of water I mean. There are little rivulets running here and there over little falls, with pendent boughs above them, and stones shining under their shallow depths. As the visitor stands and looks through the trees, the rapids glitter before him, and then hide themselves behind islands. They glitter and sparkle in far distances under the bright foliage, till the remembrance is lost, and one knows not which way they run. . . .

“Having mounted the hill on the Canada side, you will walk on toward the falls. As I have said before, you will from this side look directly into the full circle of the upper cataract, while you will have before you, at your left hand, the whole expanse of the lesser fall. For those who desire to see all at a glance; who wish to comprise the whole with their eyes, and to leave nothing to be guessed, nothing to be surmised, this no doubt is the best point of view. . . .

“Here, on this side, you walk on to the very edge of the cataract, and, if your tread be steady and your legs firm, you dip your foot into the water exactly at the spot where the thin outside margin of the current reaches the rocky edge and jumps to join the mass of the fall. The bed of white foam beneath is certainly seen better here than elsewhere, and the green curve of the water is as bright here as when seen

from the wooden rail across. But nevertheless I say again that that wooden rail is the one point from whence Niagara may be best seen aright.

"Close to the cataract, exactly at the spot from whence in former days the Table Rock used to project from the land over the boiling caldron below, there is now a shaft, down which you will descend to the level of the river, and pass between the rock and the torrent. This Table Rock broke away from the cliff and fell, as up the whole course of the river the seceding rocks have split and fallen from time to time through countless years, and will continue to do till the bed of the upper lake is reached. . . .

"In the spot to which I allude the visitor stands on a broad safe path, made of shingles, between the rock over which the water rushes and the rushing water. He will go in so far that the spray, rising back from the bed of the torrent, does not incommode him. With this exception, the farther he can go in the better; but circumstances will clearly show him the spot to which he should advance. Unless the water be driven in by a very strong wind, five yards make the difference between a comparatively dry coat and an absolutely wet one. And then let him stand with his back to the entrance, thus hiding the last glimmer of the expiring day. So standing, he will look up among the falling waters, or down into the deep, misty pit, from which they reascend in almost as palpable a bulk. The rock will be at his right hand, high and hard, and dark and straight, like the wall of some huge cavern, such as children enter in their dreams. For the first five minutes he will be looking but at the waters of a cataract—at the waters, indeed, of such a cataract as we know no other, and at their interior curves which elsewhere we cannot see. But by and by all this will change. He will no longer be on a shingly path beneath a waterfall; but that feeling of a cavern wall will grow upon him, of a cavern deep, below roaring seas, in which the waves are there, though they do not enter in upon him; or rather, not the waves, but the very bowels of the ocean. He will feel as though the floods surrounded him, coming and going with their wild sounds, and he will hardly recognize that though among them he is not in them. And they, as they fall with a continual roar, not hurting the ear, but musical withal, will seem to move as the vast ocean waters may perhaps move in their internal currents. He will lose the sense of one continued descent, and think that they are passing round him in their appointed courses. The broken spray that rises from the depths below,

risers so strongly, so palpably, so rapidly, that the motion in every direction will seem equal. And, as he looks on, strange colors will show themselves through the mist; the shades of gray will become green or blue, with ever and anon a flash of white; and then, when some gust of wind blows in with greater violence, the sea-girt cavern will become all dark and black. Oh, my friend, let there be no one there to speak to thee then; no, not even a brother. As you stand there speak only to the waters."

The principal rivers are navigable for a greater or less distance, and canals connect the various parts of the State, and afford water transportation along the unnavigable parts of the rivers.

The principal islands are Long Island and Staten Island.

Long Island extends eastward from the mainland, and lies south of Connecticut. Its northern shore is washed by Long Island Sound, and its eastern and southern shores by the Atlantic Ocean, while the East River, a narrow strait, separates it from Manhattan Island. It is about 115 miles long, and about 20 miles broad. Its surface is generally level, rising only in slight elevations. The coast is broken into numerous bays and harbors, some of which are excellent. Gardiner's and Great Peconic bays, at the eastern extremity of the island, extend into the land for about 30 miles. The majority of these bays form the harbors of flourishing towns. The coast is well lighted, and several fine summer resorts are situated along it. The soil is fertile and highly cultivated. Several important towns are located on the island, and railroads furnish sure and rapid communication between them. Brooklyn, the second city in the State, is located on the extreme western end of Long Island.

Staten Island lies in the lower part of New York Bay. It is about 14 miles long, 4 miles wide, and is built up with a number of busy little villages. Its shores and heights are lined with handsome country seats, and a railroad extends throughout its entire length.

MINERALS.

The State is very rich in mineral deposits. Iron abounds. Extensive beds of hematite ores are found in Columbia and Dutchess counties, magnetic ores in Putnam, Orange, and Westchester counties, and the region lying between Lakes Champlain and Ontario is especially rich in specular and magnetic ores. The western counties also contain large deposits of this mineral. Coal is found in Steuben county, and lead in St. Lawrence, Ulster, Sullivan, Columbia, Wash-

ington, Dutchess, Rensselaer, and Westchester counties. Zinc, copper, titanium, manganese, arsenic, silver, cobalt, and bismuth are found to a limited extent. Marble, gneiss, and sandstone abound. Sulphuret of iron is found in St. Lawrence county, and carburet in Essex, Clinton, and Dutchess counties. Mineral springs are numerous. There are fine salt springs in Onondaga (which yield in this county large quantities of table salt), Erie, Genesee, and Orleans counties. Natural issues of carbureted hydrogen exist in several counties in the State. In Chautauqua county, the village of Fredonia is lighted by means of this gas, as is also Barcelona lighthouse in the same county.

CLIMATE.

In the northern and western parts of the State, the summer is short and hot, the winter long and severe, and the spring cold and damp, and rendered unpleasant by chilly winds. In the eastern section the sea breezes temper the severity of the cold, and lessen the heat of the summer. The climate of New York City is the most delightful in the country, taking it "the year round."

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

In the valleys of the principal rivers of the State the soil is generally of an excellent quality, and very fertile. In the mountainous regions it is poor. The average soil, however, is good, and the State as a whole is fertile. Agriculture is carried on to a very great extent, much care being given to scientific farming. The State is noted for its market gardens, as well as for its dairy and grazing farms.

In 1869, there were 14,355,403 acres of improved land, and 6,616,553 acres of unimproved land in the State, whose agricultural wealth for the same year may be stated as follows:

Cash value of farms (estimated),	\$1,000,000,000
Value of farming implements and machinery (estimated),	\$38,000,000
Number of horses,	703,120
" asses and mules,	1,960
" milch cows,	1,980,300
" young cattle,	2,450,600
" sheep,	3,750,960
" swine,	4,960,300
Value of domestic animals,	\$108,856,290
Bushels of wheat,	9,750,000
" rye,	4,748,000
" Indian corn,	19,100,000
" oats,	31,250,000

Bushels of	peas and beans,	1,909,339
"	Irish potatoes,	28,500,000
"	barley,	4,600,000
"	buckwheat,	278,109
Pounds of	wool,	9,500,000
"	butter,	103,097,280
"	cheese,	48,548,289
"	hops,	9,600,000
Tons of	hay,	4,600,000
Maple	sugar,	10,816,458
Gallons of	wine,	62,000
Value of	orchard products (estimated), . . .	\$4,000,000
"	market garden products (estimated),	\$3,800,000
"	home-made manufactures, "	\$825,000
"	slaughtered animals, . . .	\$16,000,000

COMMERCE.

The commerce of New York is the most important of any of the States. In 1863 the total tonnage owned in the State was 1,889,190 tons, of which 848,328 was registered, and 321,714 was steam tonnage. In addition to this, however, a very large proportion of the vessels owned in other States are engaged in trading with the ports of New York. This State possesses the principal harbor of the Republic, and is more extensively engaged in the foreign and coast trade than any other. A very large share of the exports, and nearly all the imports, of the country pass through the port of New York. The share of the State in the lake trade is immense. Buffalo is the great centre of this trade. The enrolled and licensed tonnage of the port in 1863 was 112,893 tons, of which 50,964 was steam tonnage. In the same year, 7647 American and foreign vessels were entered, and 7729 were cleared at Buffalo. The value of imports from the west by lake and railroad, in the same year, was estimated at \$125,000,000. Of this sum, \$2,957,021 were on account of imports from Canada. The total value of imports from all sections was \$256,214,614. Immense quantities of grain are received annually from all parts of the west, and shipped eastward by the Erie Canal. In 1863, the value of canal exports was \$56,644,792. In 1869, the tonnage of merchandise carried through them amounted to 1,000,000 tons, the capacity of all the vessels entered at the ports of New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, New Orleans, and San Francisco. In the same year the tolls amounted to \$1,278,507.52. These tolls are pledged by the Constitution for the support and repair of the canals, the repayment of the State indebtedness on their account, the reimbursement of the

treasury for taxation upon the people, and for the support of the State Government.

MANUFACTURES.

The State is largely engaged in manufactures, almost every species of industry being represented in this branch of its wealth.

In 1870, there were in the State 36,206 establishments devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts, employing 351,800 hands and a capital of \$366,994,320, consuming raw material worth \$452,065,452, and yielding an annual product of \$785,194,651. There were 81 cotton mills, with a capital of \$8,511,336, employing 2608 male and 4546 female hands, consuming raw material worth \$6,990,626, paying \$2,626,131 for labor, and yielding an annual product of \$11,078,211. There were 188 woollen mills, with a capital of \$9,972,857, employing 4381 male and 2992 female hands, consuming raw material worth \$8,348,693, paying \$2,824,344 for labor, and yielding an annual product of \$14,152,645.

The other manufactures were as follows:

Value of leather produced,	\$33,569,800
" pig iron produced,	7,922,463
" rolled iron produced,	16,834,480
" steam engines and machinery produced,	20,962,058
" agricultural implements produced,	11,847,037
" sawed and planed lumber produced,	27,570,569
" flour produced,	60,237,220
" salt produced,	1,017,569
" malt and spirituous liquors produced,	19,297,274
" boots and shoes produced,	23,679,874
" furniture produced,	16,075,268
" musical instruments produced,	5,453,015
" jewelry, silverware, etc., produced,	10,853,956
" soap and candles produced,	6,125,018

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

The State of New York was the first member of the Union to engage in internal improvements upon a large scale. In 1817, the great Erie and Hudson Canal was commenced. It was completed in 1825 at a cost of \$7,000,000. This magnificent work, connecting the waters of the Atlantic with those of the Great Lakes, is due to the genius and determination of De Witt Clinton, who more than any other man contributed to its successful accomplishment. The Erie Canal has several branches diverging from it, viz: one from Utica to Binghamton, one from Syracuse to Oswego, one from Geneva to

Montezuma, and one from Rochester to Danville. The next important main line is the Champlain Canal, from Albany to Lake Champlain, which is not far behind the "Erie" in the extent and value of its trade. The other canals are the Delaware and Hudson, connecting the Hudson River with the coal mines in northeastern Pennsylvania; the Chemung, connecting Seneca Lake and Elmira; the Crooked Lake, between Penn Yan and Dresden; and the Black River and Genesee Valley Canal, which is not yet completed. There are about 873 miles of canal navigation completed in the State. The various routes are all in successful operation, each commanding a large and profitable trade. They have all been constructed by the State.

The railroads of New York are among the most important in the country. In 1870 there were 4773 miles of completed roads in the State. The total cost of these was about \$225,000,000. The State is traversed in every direction by roads of this class, which connect its principal towns and cities, and extend into the States lying around it. Close connections are made with the most important roads of the Union, and by a judicious system, inaugurated within the last few years, travellers are conveyed from New York City to the principal cities of the Union without change of cars in the majority of instances, and with but one or two changes in the others. Freights are brought from the far South and the remote West to the metropolis in the cars in which they were originally placed. The New York Central Railway, extending from Albany to Lakes Erie and Ontario, at Buffalo and Oswego; the Erie Railway, from Jersey City, opposite New York City (and lying for a short distance in New Jersey), to Lakes Erie and Ontario, at Buffalo, Dunkirk, and Rochester; the Albany and Susquehanna, from Albany to Binghamton; and the Hudson River and Harlem Railways, the last two from New York City to Albany, are the principal roads in the State.

EDUCATION.

"The institutions of higher education in this State are mostly under the general supervision of a board styled 'The Regents of the University of the State of New York.' The Board consists of the Governor, the Lieutenant-Governor, the Secretary of State, and the Superintendent of Public Instruction, as *ex-officio* members, and of nineteen other persons chosen by the Legislature in the same manner as Senators in Congress. The officers of the Regents are a Chancellor, a Vice-Chancellor, a Treasurer, a Secretary and an Assistant Secretary,

who are appointed by the Board, and who hold their offices at its pleasure. The leading duties with which the Regents are charged, are the incorporation of colleges, academies and other institutions of learning, under such general rules and regulations as they may from time to time establish, and the visitation and general supervision of all colleges and academies.

"The Regents are the Trustees of the State Library, the Trustees of the State Cabinet of Natural History, and the Historical and Antiquarian Collection connected therewith. They annually apportion among the academies the sum of \$40,000 from the income of the Literature Fund; also the sum of \$18,000, or thereabouts, to academies appointed to instruct classes in the science of common school teaching; and \$3000 to academies which shall have raised an equal amount, for the purchase of books and philosophical and chemical apparatus.

"An organization consisting of the officers of colleges and academies, subject to the visitation of the Board, and called 'The University Convocation of the State of New York,' holds an annual session at Albany, commencing on the first Tuesday in August.

"There are in the State 23 colleges, the oldest, Columbia College, having been incorporated by the colonial government in 1754. This college has, in addition to its academical department, a Law Department, and a School of Mines. The University of the City of New York has schools of Art; of Civil Engineering and Architecture; of Analytical and Practical Chemistry; and of Law.

"Cornell University, at Ithaca, incorporated in 1865, and opened to students in 1868, has been liberally endowed by Mr. Ezra Cornell. It has also received the donation of land scrip made to this State by the General Government to found an agricultural college. In its plan and object, it combines the advantages of a university with the practical benefits of a school of science and art.

"Rutger's Female College, in New York City, provides a thorough collegiate course of instruction, surpassing even many colleges for young men.

"Vassar College, at Poughkeepsie; The Packer Collegiate Institute, Brooklyn; and other institutions for young ladies, offer every facility desired for complete education.

"The Superintendent of Public Instruction has the general supervision of Public Schools in the State. School Commissioners in the different counties, city and town superintendents in the principal

cities and towns, and trustees in the school districts, exercise a local supervision over the schools in their respective localities. Great improvements have been made in the public schools of the State. The schools were made free in 1867. There are four State Normal Schools in successful operation, and four others have been authorized by law. The State Normal and Training School at Oswego has been distinguished for its influence in introducing special methods of primary instruction, known as Object Teaching. During the year 1867-68, 81 academies instructed teachers' classes in the science of common school teaching and government, under the supervision of the Regents of the University. Teachers' Institutes are held in nearly all the counties, principally under the direction of the County Commissioners." *

In the year 1870, there were 11,705 public schools in the State, conducted by 5283 male and 21,230 female teachers. The number of children at school during some portion of the year was 1,029,955. The amount expended on these schools in the same year was \$9,929,462.

In 1867 the number of private schools was 1433.

In 1870 there were 8360 libraries in the State, containing 2,436,576 volumes. Of these 774 were public.

In the same year the number of newspapers and periodicals was as follows: daily 74, semi-weekly 10, tri-weekly 7, weekly 366, monthly 69, quarterly 10, annual 6—total 542. Of these 365 were political, 56 religious, 63 literary, and 58 miscellaneous. Their total annual circulation was 320,930,884 copies.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The charitable institutions of this State are, perhaps, the most complete and the best managed of any in America. They are under the general supervision of a Board of Public State Charities, appointed by the Governor.

The New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, located at New York City, was founded in 1818. It is one of the largest and most complete in the world, and is famous for the excellence and success of its system of treatment. On the 1st of January, 1868, it contained 439 pupils.

The New York Asylum for Idiots, at Syracuse, to which place it

* American Year Book, vol. i. pp. 415-416.

was removed from Albany in 1855, is in a flourishing condition. The number of inmates is 140.

The State Lunatic Asylum is at Utica. It was opened in 1843, and is always full of patients. On the 1st of January, 1867, the number was 401. Besides this establishment the State maintains the Willard Asylum, at Ovid, and the Hudson River Asylum, at Poughkeepsie. The City and County of New York maintain a large Insane Asylum on Blackwell's Island; King's county has one at Flatbush, and the Commissioners of Emigration have one on Ward's Island. There are also several private, and a number of county asylums.

The Inebriate Asylum is at Binghamton. Persons addicted to the use of strong drink are reclaimed here. There were 40 inmates in the asylum on the 1st of January, 1868.

The Western House of Refuge, at Rochester, is for the confinement and reformation of juvenile delinquents. It was opened in 1849. On the 1st of January, 1868, there were 448 boys confined here.

There are three *State Prisons*—one at Sing Sing, one at Clinton, and one at Auburn. They are each managed by a warden, and are under the supervision of a Board of five persons appointed by the Governor by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. They hold office ten years. The prisoners are required to labor during the day, and are confined in separate cells at night. The number of inmates in the Sing Sing prison on the 1st of September, 1867, was 1409; the number in the Auburn prison, 927; in the Clinton prison, 507.

All the principal cities of the State are provided with excellent penal establishments of their own, and make liberal provision for the support of such charitable institutions as are needed.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870 the total value of church property was \$66,073,755. The number of churches was 5174.

FINANCES.

On the 30th of September, 1874, the total funded debt of the State was \$30,199,456, classified as follows:

General fund,	\$3,988,526
Contingent,	68,000
Canal,	10,230,430
Bounty,	15,912,500
Total,	\$30,199,456

The following statement shows the amount of the State debt on September 30th, 1870, after deducting the unapplied balances of the sinking funds at that date :

	Balances.	As provided for.
General fund, \$4,040,026.40	\$1,008,975.74	\$3,031,050.66
Contingent, 68,000.00	17,992.21	50,007.79
Canal, 11,966,580.00	2,149,884.61	9,816,695.39
Bounty, 22,567,000.00	3,055,609.58	19,511,390.42
<u>\$38,641,606.40</u>	<u>\$6,232,462.14</u>	<u>\$32,409,144.26</u>

The State debt, on September 30th, 1870, after deducting the unapplied balances of the sinking funds, amounted to	\$38,641,606.40
On September 30th, 1874, to	30,199,456.40
Showing a reduction of	<u>\$8,442,150.00</u>

The receipts of the State Treasury, on account of all funds except the Canal and Free School funds for the fiscal year, amounted to \$26,465,370.43, and the expenditures to \$19,636,308.36.

The gross valuation of taxable property in the State for the year 1870 was \$1,967,001,180. The total State tax amounted to \$14,285,976, being a little more than seven mills on the dollar.

On the 1st of October, 1870, there were 292 National Banks in operation in the State of New York, with an aggregate paid-in capital of \$13,497,741, and an aggregate circulation of \$67,077,668. At the same time there were 61 banks doing business under the State laws, whose outstanding circulation was \$2,253,937.50. There were, at the same time, 133 Savings Banks, with assets estimated at \$220,000,000.

GOVERNMENT.

The original Constitution of New York was adopted in 1777. It has been amended and changed since then. The last Convention for this purpose met in June, 1867, and continued its sessions for several weeks into the year 1868.

The Government of the State is placed in the hands of a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Comptroller, Treasurer, Attorney General, and a Legislature consisting of a Senate (of 32 members) and an Assembly (of 128 members). The Executive officers named above and the Senators are elected once every two years, and the members of the Assembly annually. The election for Governor and Lieutenant-Governor and that for the other officers are held on alternate years. The Canal Commissioners and Inspectors of State

Prisons are elected for three years, one each year. The Canal Appraisers, the Superintendent of the Banking Department, and the Auditor of the Canal Department are appointed for three years by the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. The Adjutant-General and other officers of the military staff are appointed by the Governor.

"The Court for the Trial of Impeachments is composed of the President of the Senate (who is president of the court, and when absent the chief judge of the Court of Appeals presides), the Senators, or the major part of them, and the judges of the Court of Appeals, or the greater part of them. It is a court of record, and, when summoned, meets at Albany, and has for its clerk and officers the clerk and officers of the Senate.

"The Court of Appeals has full power to correct and reverse all proceedings and decisions of the Supreme Court. It is composed of eight judges, of whom four are elected (one every second year) by the people at large, for eight years, and four selected each year from the Justices of the Supreme Court having the shortest time to serve. These selections are made alternately from the First, Third, Fifth, and Seventh, and from the Second, Fourth, Sixth, and Eighth Judicial Districts. The judge (of the four chosen at large) whose term first expires, presides as Chief Judge. Six judges constitute a quorum. Every cause must be decided within the year in which it is argued, and, unless reargued, before the close of the term after the argument.

"The Supreme Court has general jurisdiction in law and equity, and power to review judgments of the County Courts, and of the old Courts of Common Pleas. For the election of the Justices, the State is divided into eight judicial districts, the first of which elects five, and all the others four, to serve eight years. In each district one justice goes out of office every two years. The justice in each district whose term first expires, and who is not a judge of the Court of Appeals, is a Presiding Justice of the court, and the clerks of the several counties serve as clerks.

"The County Courts are always open for the transaction of any business for which no notice is required to be given to an opposing party. At least two terms in each county for the trial of issues of law or fact, and as many more as the County Judge shall appoint, shall be held in each year.

"County Judges are elected for four years; they are vested with the powers of justices of the Supreme Court at Chambers, are mem-

bers of Courts of Oyer and Terminer, and, with two Justices of the Peace, constitute Courts of Sessions.

"The Criminal Courts are the Courts of Oyer and Terminer and the Courts of Sessions. The Courts of Oyer and Terminer in each county, except in the city and county of New York, are composed of a justice of the Supreme Court, who presides, the County Judge, and the two Justices of the Peace chosen members of the Court of Sessions. The Presiding Justice and any two of the others form a quorum. In the city and county of New York they are held by a justice of the Supreme Court alone. These courts are all held at the same time and place at which the Circuit Courts are held. Courts of Sessions, except in the city of New York, are composed of the County Judge and the two Justices of the Peace designated as members of the Court of Sessions, and are held at the same time and place as the County Courts." *

The seat of Government is established at Albany. For purposes of government the State is divided into 60 counties.

HISTORY.

The first white man who trod the soil of New York, was Samuel Champlain, a French navigator, who entered the lake to which he has given his name, on the 4th of July, 1609. On the 12th of the same month, Hendrik Hudson, an Englishman, commanding a ship in the service of the Dutch East India Company, entered the bay of New York, having discovered the entrance to it three days previous. He explored the river which is called after him, as far as Albany; and during the next ten years, frequent voyages for trade were made to this region by the Dutch, and small trading posts were established by them at Manhattan Island (New York City) and Fort Orange (Albany). In 1623, Fort Orange and Manhattan Island were permanently settled, 18 families locating themselves at the former place, and 30 at the latter, which was called New Amsterdam. The English claimed the territory by right of prior possession; and in March, 1664, Charles II. granted it to his brother, the Duke of York. In August of the same year, the English took forcible possession of the province, which had been called New Netherlands by the Dutch, and changed its name to New York, which also became the name of the town of New Amsterdam.

* American Year Book, vol. ii. p. 412.



NEW YORK IN 1664.

Under the rule of James II., the colony was governed with an iron hand. Large grants of land and odious privileges were awarded to unworthy favorites, but the people at large were oppressed with heavy taxes, and their industry hampered by burdensome restrictions upon manufactures and trade. Frequent conflicts between the authorities and the people were the result of these narrow measures. It was hoped that the accession of William and Mary to the throne would bring with it a change in the policy of the Government towards the province, but this expectation was doomed to disappointment. The new king was quite as fond of high taxes as the old one had been.

Nicholson, the Governor appointed by King James, oppressed the people so grievously, that they rose against him in 1689, seized the government, and made their leader, Jacob Leisler, a merchant of New York, Governor in the names of William and Mary. Leisler held his place for two years, although the home Government never formally recognized him. In 1691, the king sent Governor Sloughter over to supersede him. Leisler and his son-in-law, Milborne, made some slight resistance to the new ruler, and were arrested, tried for treason, and executed.

The Indians gave great trouble to the first settlers, and the early history of New York is little more than a record of a continuous warfare with the various tribes of the Five Nations. In 1689, Schenec-

tady was taken and burnt by the savages, and many of its inhabitants killed. During the wars with the French in America, many incursions were made into the province by the French and Indians, and considerable suffering was experienced by the settlers. The province bore a prominent part in these struggles, furnishing many men and much money, and providing some of the best officers connected with them. The country along Lakes George and Champlain was made historical by the events of these wars. The victory over Dieskau was won at the head of the former lake, which beautiful sheet of water was again made memorable by the fearful massacre of the garrison of Fort William Henry, in 1757. The fort had been surrendered to the French, but their Indian allies refused to respect the capitulation. The next year, Abercrombie's army of 16,000 men, the largest and best equipped force that had ever been seen in America, was defeated before Ticonderoga. Besides these important events of the last French war, there were many other enterprises connected with these struggles, in which the colony won considerable renown.

New York contained, perhaps, more royalist partisans than any of the colonies; but in spite of this, the people, as a whole, were warm in their resistance to the oppressions of England, and gave a hearty support to the measures adopted by the United Colonies for their common protection. In October, 1775, they forced Tryon, the last loyalist Governor, to take refuge on a British man-of-war. Some of the principal events of the Revolution occurred in this State, which, besides furnishing its fair share of men and means, gave to the cause many of the brightest names which adorn it. The fortresses of Crown Point and Ticonderoga, which were situated within the limits of New York, were seized by the "Green Mountain Boys," of Vermont, in May, 1775. The other events of the war occurring in this State, were the advance and retreat of the army of Montgomery and Schuyler, which was expected to conquer Canada, in July, 1775, the battle of Long Island, and the occupation of New York, in February, 1776; the invasion of the State by Burgoyne, in the summer of 1777, and his subsequent surrender at Saratoga, after the battles of Stillwater and Saratoga, in October of the same year; the contests with the Six Nations, who had espoused the English cause, and the destruction of their villages by General Sullivan, in 1779; and the evacuation of the city of New York by the British, on the 25th of November, 1783.

Immediately after the close of the war, the State was involved in

the renewal of an old controversy respecting the territory now known as the State of Vermont.* For some time it seemed that the quarrel would result in open hostilities between New York and Vermont; but it was at length compromised in 1790, as has been shown in another chapter.

The original Constitution of New York was adopted in March, 1777. It was revised in 1801, 1821, and 1846. A fourth revision was made in 1868. Slavery existed in New York until 1817, when it was finally abolished. Indeed, at the time of the seizure of the province by the English, in 1664, it contained, in proportion to its population, more slaves than Virginia.

New York was the eleventh State to ratify the Constitution of the United States, which was done on the 26th of July, 1788.

The western part of the State was rapidly settled after the close of the Revolution, but suffered considerably from the attacks of the British during the war of 1812-15. The State bore a conspicuous part in this struggle. The principal naval depot of the Americans on the lakes was at Sacket's Harbor, on Lake Ontario, and was the object of an unsuccessful attack by the British. The battle of Plattsburg and the great naval fight on Lake Champlain both occurred within the limits of the State, which was also well represented in the gallant little navy which made such a glorious name on the high seas.

"In 1796, the 'Western Navigation Company' was incorporated. This company built locks around the Rapids upon the Mohawk, and dug a canal across the portage at Rome, so that laden boats could pass from the ocean to Oneida Lake, and thence by the outlet of that sheet of water to Lake Ontario. Various plans were brought before the public from time to time for improving this channel of navigation and for building locks around Niagara Falls, so as to unite the waters of Ontario and Erie. In 1800, Gouverneur Morris conceived the bold plan of bringing the waters of Lake Erie to the Hudson by means of a canal directly through the centre of the State. In 1808, James Geddes made a partial survey of the proposed route, and gave a report highly favorable to the enterprise. De Witt Clinton soon after investigated the matter, and from that time forward gave to the project the whole weight of his influence. The war of 1812 caused a suspension of the work, but upon the return of peace in 1815, the dis-

* See Chapter on Vermont.

cussion was vigorously resumed; and in 1816, a law was passed authorizing the construction of the canal. The work was actually commenced in 1817, and the canal was finished in 1825. It speedily became the great channel of trade and emigration, and poured into New York City the rich streams of traffic which have made it the commercial metropolis of the western continent. The State has been covered with a network of railways, rendering communication between distant points easy and rapid. The early attention paid to internal improvements, and the consequent development of internal resources, gave to New York the impetus which has placed it first in commercial importance, and given to it the name of 'The Empire State.' *"

During the recent war, the State was amongst the first and most active in its support of the Government. It contributed to the service of the Union a force of 473,443 men, of which number the city of New York furnished 267,551.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

The cities and towns of importance are New York, Brooklyn, Buffalo, Rochester, Troy, Syracuse, Utica, Watervleit, Oswego, Newtown, Poughkeepsie, Auburn, Newburgh, Elmira, Morrisania, Cohoes, Flushing, Hempstead, Johnson, Lockport, Binghamton, Fishkill, Rome, Schenectady, Kingston, Cortlandt, Yonkers, Oyster Bay, Ogdensburgh, Brookhaven, Huntington, Ithaca, Rondcut, Saugerties, and Greenburg.

ALBANY,

The capital and fourth city of the State, is situated in Albany county, on the right bank of the Hudson, at the head of tide-water and sloop navigation, in $42^{\circ} 39' 3''$ N. latitude, $73^{\circ} 32'$ W. longitude; 145 miles north of New York, 164 west of Boston, and 370 northeast from Washington. It is finely located, the ground rising to the westward, from the river shore to an elevation of about 220 feet. These heights are divided into three distinct hills by ravines through which considerable streams of water flow, viz., the Foxen Kill, Rутten Kill, and the Beaver Kill. The ravines have been almost entirely filled up, and the creeks reach the river by means of huge sewers far below the surface. "The view from the most elevated points in Albany is very fine. To the north may be seen the city of Troy and adjacent vilages, and in the distance loom up the Green Mountains

* New American Cyclopædia, vol. xii. p. 269.



ALBANY.

of Vermont. To the east we behold a beautiful extent of country stretching beyond the Hudson as far as the eye can reach ; and to the south, the Helderbergs and the Catskill Mountains, with the river flowing at their base."

Being situated at the head of sloop navigation, Albany has a large commerce with all parts of the State. The Hudson affords water communication with the sea, the Erie Canal connects it with the great lakes, and the Champlain Canal binds it to Lake Champlain and the lower St. Lawrence. Seven railways connect it with all parts of the Union. The Erie Canal enters the city at its northern limits. The boats are thence conveyed to a large basin covering 32 acres, which has been formed by constructing a pier, more than a mile in length, which cuts off and encloses a bend in the river. A safe and fine anchorage is thus secured for vessels and steamers during the season of ice, and the sides of the basin afford excellent wharfage. The trade brought to the city by the canals is immense, and has been the chief cause of its rapid growth and prosperity. The lumber trade is estimated at about \$7,000,000. About 2,000,000 barrels of flour, over

3,000,000 bushels of corn, nearly 2,000,000 bushels of barley, and about 5,000,000 pounds of wool, pass through Albany yearly.

The city is also largely interested in manufactures. Iron, hollow-ware, and malt are the principal articles. Large numbers of stoves and large quantities of beer are produced annually. Pianofortes, hats, caps, bonnets, sleighs, coaches, leather, are also produced in large quantities.

The city is well built as a rule, and contains a number of handsome edifices. The streets are more crooked and irregular than those of any American city, save Boston, but, with this exception, Albany retains few traces of its origin. State street, extending from the river, westward to the Capitol, is the principal thoroughfare. The city contains a number of public squares, some of which are handsome. The public buildings are handsome, though not in keeping with the wealth and importance of the Empire State. The Capitol was erected in 1807, at a cost of \$173,000. It is a plain building of brown stone, from the quarries on the Hudson River, with a Doric portico of white marble. It is 115 by 90 feet, and is 50 feet high. It is surmounted by a dome ornamented with a statue of Justice. In this building are the halls of the two Houses of the Legislature, the offices of the Governor, and Adjutant-General, and the chambers of the Court of Appeals and Supreme Court. Immediately in the rear of the Capitol stands the new State Library, a handsome modern fire-proof edifice, containing more than 60,000 volumes, among which are some of the rarest and most valuable works in print. The State Hall, a large edifice of white marble, stands opposite the Capitol, with a handsome park between them. It contains the offices of the Secretary of State and other State officials. It was built in 1843, at a cost of \$350,000. A new and imposing Capitol is now in course of erection. Near the State Hall, and on the same side of the square, is the City Hall, also built of white marble, at an expense of \$120,000. It is occupied by the officers of the city government, and by the city and county courts.

The educational and scientific institutions of Albany are of a high character. They possess many of the handsomest buildings in the city. In addition to the free common schools, the *Albany Academy*, the *Albany Female Academy*, the *State Normal School*, for the education of teachers in common schools, and the *Albany University* are the principal. The University embraces departments of law, medicine, and science in its various branches, and connected with it is the

Dudley Observatory, founded by Mrs. Blandina Dudley. The *Merchants' Exchange*, *Post Office*, and *Exchange Bank* are handsome edifices. The charitable and benevolent institutions are numerous, and are liberally supported. The city contains upwards of 50 churches and 6 missions. The most imposing church edifice is the Roman Catholic cathedral of the Immaculate Conception, one of the largest churches in the Union. It will seat 4000 persons.

There are several fine libraries in the city, and the newspapers published here are influential and possessed of a large circulation.

The city is lighted with gas, and supplied with pure water, which is distributed in pipes from a large reservoir built at an expense of \$1,000,000. For purposes of government the city is divided into ten wards, each of which elects two aldermen, who, together with the Mayor and Recorder, form the Common Council, or city government. The population, according to the census of 1870, is 69,422.

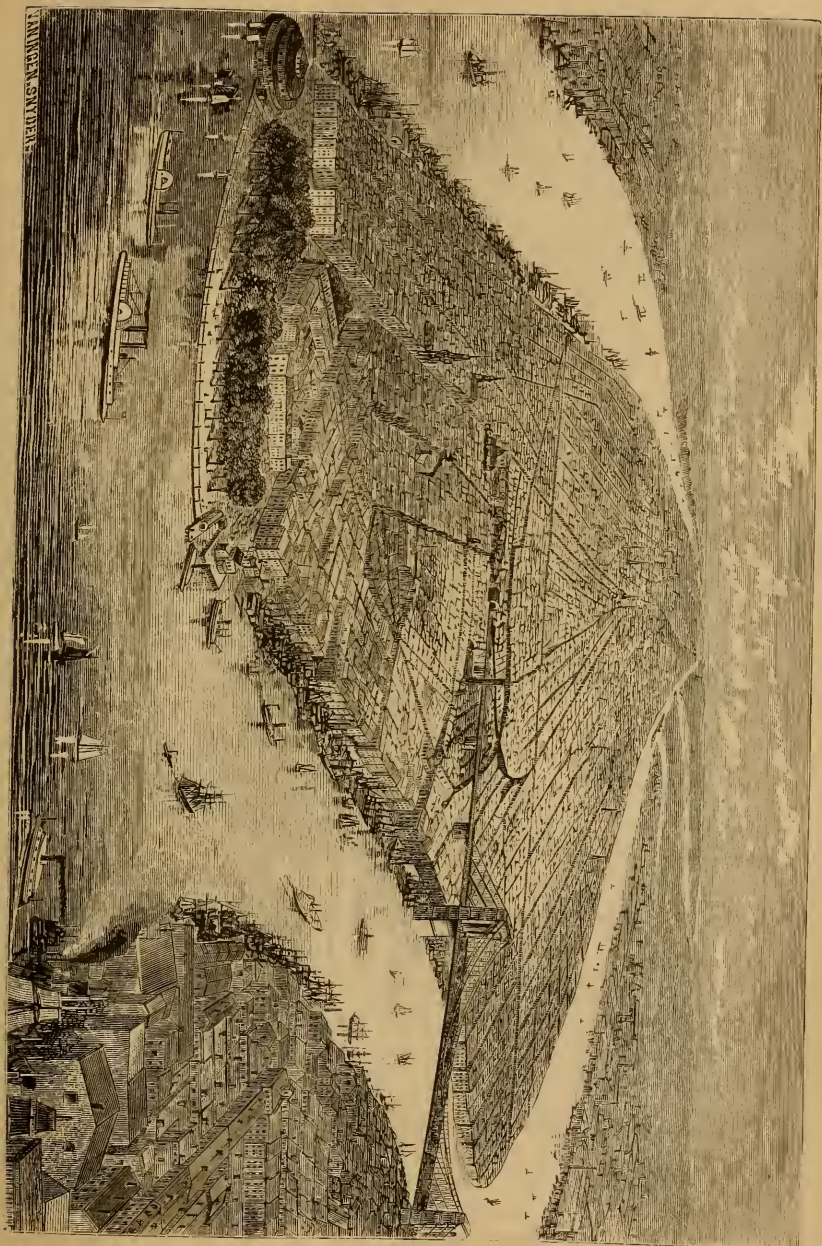
With the exception of Jamestown, in Virginia, Albany is the oldest settlement within the limits of the original thirteen States. Before the arrival of the whites, the Indians gave to the place the name of Scho-negh-ta-da, "over the plains," which name the Dutch settlers afterwards gave to an Indian settlement which marked the present site of Schenectady, as "over the plains" from Albany. In September, 1609, Hendrik Hudson, having discovered the river which bears his name, ascended it to a point now marked by the city of Hudson, where he anchored, having spent nearly two weeks in the voyage from the mouth of the river. From this point the mate and a boat's crew ascended to the head of tide water, the present site of Albany, 27 miles higher up the stream. In 1614, a fort and a trading post were established by the Dutch on Boyd's Island, near the southern limits of the present city. In 1617, the fort was carried away by a flood, and a year or two later, a new one was built near the present site of Fort Orange Hotel, on Broadway, and called Fort Orange in honor of the Prince of Orange. In 1630, Kiliaen Van Rensselaer, a dealer in pearls, of Amsterdam, bought from the Indians a large tract of land, including Fort Orange, on the west bank of the Hudson, and sent out a considerable colony of Dutch mechanics and farmers to occupy his new estate. Seven years afterwards he purchased from the Indians another tract lying immediately across the Hudson, and thus became proprietor of a district extending for 24 miles along the river, and 48 miles from east to west. Over this region, to which he gave the name of Rensselaerswyck, he exercised sovereign authority, as its

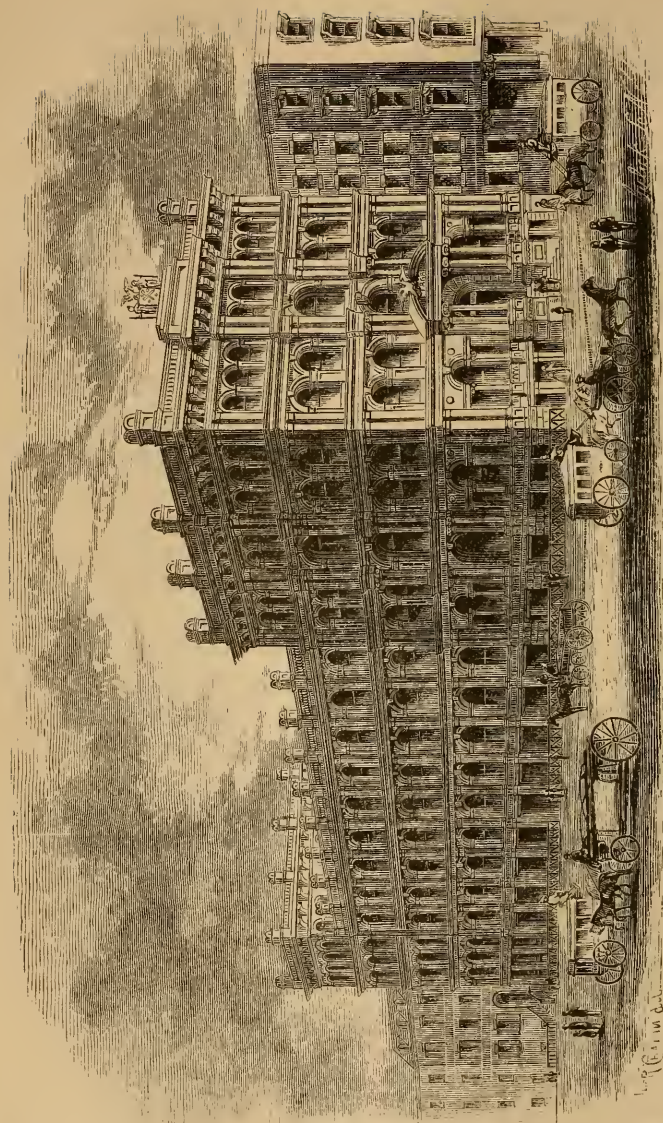
patroon, committing the administration of matters of justice and finance to a commissary-general. In 1664, the province passed into the hands of the English. Van Rensselaer was secured in his possession of the soil by a new patent from the king, but the sovereignty passed to the crown. The Van Rensselaer family still retain a large portion of the original estate, and a part of the Van Rensselaer mansion, built in 1765, is still standing in Albany.

After passing into the hands of the English, the settlement, which had been known as Fort Orange, Beaverwyck, Williamstadt, and the Fuyck, was called Albany, in honor of the Duke of York and Albany, afterwards James II., of England. Albany received a city charter in 1686, with Peter Schuyler as its first mayor. The selection of the mayor was fortunate, as both he and his family possessed the confidence and friendship of the Indians to such an extent that the savages never attacked Albany, though they made the neighboring settlements feel severely the terrors of their hostility. During the Revolution, Albany gave an active support to the patriot cause, and contributed many troops to the American army. The defeat of Burgoyne at Saratoga saved it from capture, as that general was marching directly upon it. Sir Henry Clinton also made two attempts to reach it, both of which resulted in failure. In 1807, Albany became the capital of the State, but it was a comparatively insignificant town until the introduction of steam navigation and the opening of the Erie Canal placed it in the path to its present prosperity.

NEW YORK,

The largest and most important city of the State and the United States, is situated in New York county, on Manhattan Island, at the mouth of the Hudson River, 18 miles from the Atlantic Ocean, latitude (of the City Hall) $40^{\circ} 42' 43''$ N., longitude $74^{\circ} 0' 3''$ W. The city limits comprise the entire county of New York, embracing Manhattan Island, Randall's, Ward's, and Blackwell's islands, in the East River, and Governor's, Bedloe's, and Ellis' islands in the bay, the last 3 of which are occupied by the military posts of the Federal Government. Manhattan Island is bounded on the north by Harlem River and Spuyten Duyvel Creek, on the east by the East River, on the west by the Hudson River, and on the South by New York Bay. It is 9 miles long on the east side, $13\frac{1}{2}$ miles long on the west side, and $2\frac{1}{4}$ miles wide at its greatest breadth. It is but a few feet in width at its southern extremity, but spreads out like a fan





NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY'S BUILDING, BROADWAY.

as it stretches to the northward. The southern point is but a few inches above the level of the bay, but the island rises rapidly to the northward, its extreme northern portion being occupied by a series of bold, finely wooded heights, which terminate at the junction of the Hudson River and Spuyten Duyvel creek, in a bold promontory 130 feet high. These heights, known as Washington Heights, are 2 or 3 miles in length. The southern portion of the island is principally a sand bed, but the remainder is rocky. The island covers an area of 22 square miles, or 14,000 acres. It is built up compactly for about 6 miles, and irregularly along the east side to Harlem, 3 miles farther. Along the west side it is built up compactly to the Central Park, 59th street, and irregularly to Manhattanville, 125th street, from which point, to Spuyten Duyvel creek, it is covered with country seats, gardens, etc. Three wagon and 2 railroad bridges over the Harlem River connect the island with the mainland, and 26 lines of ferries connect it with Long and Staten islands and New Jersey.

The city is finely built, and presents an aspect of industry and liveliness unsurpassed by any city in the world. Lying in full sight of the ocean, with its magnificent bay to the southward, and the East and Hudson rivers washing its shores, the city of New York possesses a climate which renders it the most delightful residence in America. In the winter the proximity of the sea moderates the severity of the cold, and in the summer the heat is tempered by the delightful sea breezes which sweep over the island. Snow seldom lies in the streets for more than a few hours, and the intense "heated terms" of the summer are of very brief duration. As a natural consequence, the city is healthy, and the death-rate, in proportion to the population, is small.

The southern portion is densely built up, and between the City Hall and 23d street, it is more thickly populated than any city in America. It is in this section that the "tenement houses," or buildings containing from 10 to 20 families, are to be found. In this region there are many single blocks of dwellings containing twice the number of families residing on 5th avenue, on both sides of that street, from Washington Square to the Central Park, or than a continuous row of dwellings, similar to those of 5th avenue, 3 or 4 miles in length. There is a multitude of these squares, any one of which contains a larger population than the whole city of Hartford, Connecticut, which covers an area of 7 square miles.* The greatest mortality is

* Annual Cyclopædia, 1861. Hartford at that time contained a population of about 28,000.



SCENE IN BROADWAY.

in these overcrowded districts, which the severest police measures cannot keep clean and free from filth. It must not be supposed, however, that poverty alone induces persons to live in such houses. Many of the most crowded districts are occupied by people, especially foreigners, who wish to avoid the expense and trouble of more commodious residences.

The southern portion of the city is devoted almost exclusively to trade, comparatively few persons residing below the City Hall. Below Canal street the streets are narrow, crooked, and irregular, but above this point they are broad and straight, and are laid out at regular intervals. Above Houston street the streets extending across the island are numbered. The avenues begin in the vicinity of 3d street, and extend, or will extend, to the northern limits of the island, running parallel with the Hudson River. They are generally 100 feet wide, and are compactly built up. The numbered cross streets are usually 60 feet wide, but a few have a width of 100 feet. First street is about a mile and three quarters above the southern end of the island, which is known as the Battery. The main thoroughfare is Broadway, which extends throughout the entire length of Manhattan Island. It

is built up compactly for about 5 miles. There are over 420 miles of streets in the patrol districts, and 11 miles of piers along the water. The sewerage is good in the main, but is defective in some places. Upwards of 300 miles of water pipes have been laid. The streets are lighted by over 15,000 gas lamps, the footways are generally made of broad stone flags, and the streets are laid in some cases with the wooden pavement, and in others with the Belgian, or stone block pavement. Cobble stones are rapidly disappearing. For so large a city, New York is remarkably clean, except in those portions lying close to the river, or given up to paupers.

The city is substantially built. Frame houses are very rare. Many of the old quarters are built of brick, but this material is now used to a limited extent only. Broadway and the principal business streets are lined with buildings of marble, iron, brown and Portland stone, palatial in their appearance; and the sections devoted to the residences of the better classes are built up mainly with brown stone or Portland stone, and in some instances with marble. Thus the city presents an appearance of grandeur and solidity most pleasing to the eye. The public buildings will compare favorably with any in the world, and there is no city on the globe that can boast so many palatial warehouses and stores. Broadway is one of the most magnificent thoroughfares in the world. The stores which line it are generally from five to six stories high above the ground, with two cellars below the level of the pavement, and vaults extending to near the middle of the street. The adjacent streets in many cases rival Broadway in their splendor. The stores of the city are famous for their elegance and convenience, and for the magnificence of the goods displayed in them. The streets occupied by private residences are broad, clean, well paved, and are lined with dwellings inferior to none in the world in convenience and elegance. Fifth, Madison, Park, and Lexington avenues, and the numbered streets crossing them, are lined with magnificent residences of brown or light-colored stone and marble. The amount of wealth and taste concentrated in the dwellings of the better classes of the citizens of New York is very great.

The city is well provided with public parks and promenades. The principal parks, commencing at the lower end of the island, are the Battery, containing 10 acres, and facing the Bay; the Bowling Green; the City Hall Park, comprising an area of 10 acres, and containing the City Hall, the new Post Office, Court House, etc.; Washington Square, about 9 acres; Union Park; Grammercy Park, belonging to



SCENE IN FIFTH AVENUE.

the owners of the residences facing it; Stuyvesant Square, about 3 acres, divided in the centre by the passage of 2nd avenue; Tompkins Square, about 11 acres; Madison Square, 6 acres; and Hamilton Square, 15 acres. These are handsomely laid off, with the exception of Tompkins Square, which is used as a drill ground, and are ornamented with fountains, statues, etc., and are kept in good order by the city.

The chief pleasure ground is the Central Park, situated on the eastern slope of an elevated ridge extending along the western side of the island, in the upper part of the city, from 59th street, on the south, to 110th street, on the north, and from 5th avenue, on the east, to 8th avenue, on the west. It is two miles and a half in length, by half a mile in width, and embraces an area of 843 acres. It is laid out with great taste and skill, and comprises a variety of landscape, which renders it one of the most beauti-



VIEW IN CENTRAL PARK.

ful and attractive parks in the world. Up to the present day the outlay upon it has exceeded ten millions of dollars. It is divided into the Lower Park, extending from 59th to 79th streets, and comprising an area of 336 acres; and the Upper Park, extending from 79th to 110th streets. Between the Upper and Lower Parks lie the vast reservoirs of the Croton water works, which cover an area of 137 acres, and have a capacity of 1,150,000,000 gallons. The Lower Park is generally level, and is laid off in lawns, terraces, walks, and drives, with two beautiful lakes, which cover an area of 40 acres; and is ornamented with statuary, flowers, and tasteful buildings. The Upper Park is more rugged, and is naturally the more beautiful. It is a succession of charming hills and dales, whose beauties have been increased and heightened by the best landscape gardeners and engineers. A museum of natural history, and the beginning of a zoological garden are located in the Lower Park, near the principal entrance on 5th avenue; and a museum of statuary has been opened in one of the buildings at Mount St. Vincent, in the Upper Park. The management of the Park is entrusted to a Commission, appointed by



THE WATER TERRACE IN THE CENTRAL PARK.

the Governor of the State. Naturally, the Park is an object of great pride to the citizens, and is one of the principal attractions to strangers visiting the city. It is usually full of pleasure seekers, of all ages, sexes, and conditions, and it is pleasant to record that no crime, of the most trifling character, has ever been committed within its limits. In 1870, the total number of persons visiting it, including the drivers and occupants of carriages, was 8,421,427. Pleasure boats ply on the principal lake, and may be engaged for a small sum; and "park omnibuses," or open carriages of a peculiar construction, under the control of the Commissioners, convey visitors through the grounds for the sum of 25 cents each. The streets enclosing the Park are being rapidly built up with elegant mansions, and afford one of the most delightful quarters for residence on the island.

New York is the commercial metropolis of the United States. The local trade of the city is necessarily very great, but its trade with the rest of the Union is enormous, and it conducts a large foreign commerce. Only three lines of railway enter the city limits, but 14 lines, terminating on the shores of Long Island and New Jersey, connect it with all parts of the Union. At least 100 steamboats, large and small, ply between the city and the towns on the Bay, the Hudson River, and Long Island Sound, while fully as many steamships connect New York with the more distant ports of the Union. Besides these, the number of sailing craft engaged in the coasting trade is very large. About 120 first class steamers ply between New York and the ports of Europe, and about 20 sail to South American, Mexican, and West Indian ports. Being entirely surrounded by water, New

York is admirably adapted to commerce. The largest ships can lie alongside of its piers, of which there are eleven miles, constantly crowded with shipping, on the North and East River fronts. During the year 1870, the foreign imports of New York were valued at \$315,200,022, and the exports to foreign countries at \$195,945,733, exclusive of \$58,191,475 in specie and bullion. About two-thirds of all the imports, and about forty per cent. of all the exports of the United States pass through the port of New York. In the year 1868, the arrivals at New York from foreign ports were as follows :

	Vessels.
Steamers,	691
Ships,	390
Barks,	1,055
Brigs,	1,499
Schooners,	1,223
Total,	4,861

The domestic trade of New York is immense. During the year 1864, some of the receipts of the port were as follows :

Barrels of wheat flour,	3,967,717
Bushels of wheat,	13,453,135
" oats,	12,952,238
" corn,	7,164,895
Bales of cotton,	190,911
Packages of pork,	332,454
" beef,	209,664
" cut meats,	268,417
" butter,	551,153
" cheese,	756,872
Tierces and barrels of lard,	186,000
Kegs of lard,	16,104
Barrels of whiskey,	289,481
" petroleum,	775,587

In June, 1863, the tonnage belonging to the port of New York was officially stated as follows: Registered—permanent, 609,025; temporary, 237,420. Enrolled—permanent, 745,330; temporary, 17,334. Total, 1,624,000. There was besides, 97,485 steam tonnage. This does not include the vessels owned in other cities and States, or foreign vessels trading with New York.

The city is amply provided with means of communication between its principal points. Lines of omnibuses and street railways traverse the island in every direction, the principal car lines continuing their trips through the night. The fares vary from five to ten cents. More

than 400 street cars and 200 omnibuses are engaged in transporting persons through the city. A steam railway, connecting the upper and lower portions of the island, is now in construction.

Communication with the shores of Long Island, Staten Island, and New Jersey is maintained by 26 lines of ferries, employing over 100 steam ferry boats, and transporting, it is estimated, upwards of 80,000,000 of passengers, and more than 3,000,000 of vehicles annually. The railway lines leading to the city run over 400 trains to and from points 5 miles and upwards distant from the city. Fourteen railways lead directly to the city. Three of these terminate within the city limits, six on the New Jersey shore, four in Brooklyn, and one on Staten Island.

The hotels of New York are the best in the world. They are built upon extensive plans, and are among the finest specimens of architecture in the city. They are fitted up luxuriously, and afford their guests every comfort and convenience. The principal are the Astor House, the St. Nicholas, the Metropolitan, the Grand Central, the Fifth Avenue, the St. James, and the Grand Hotels; and the Everett, the Clarendon, the Albemarle, the Hoffman, the Coleman, the Sturtevant, and the Gilsay Houses. The Astor is built of gray granite, and presents a massive appearance; the St. Nicholas, the Grand Central, the Fifth Avenue, the Hoffman, the Albemarle, the St. James, and the Grand are of pure white marble; and the Gilsay House, a magnificent modern structure, is of iron. These Houses are amongst the most elegant buildings in the city, and each is capable of accommodating several hundred guests.

The theatres are numerous, and will compare favorably in splendor and convenience with any in the world. They are more comfortably arranged than those of other American cities, and are much handsomer. The performances are good, as a rule. There are about 30 first-class places of amusement in the city, including theatres, concert halls, lecture rooms, music halls, circuses, summer gardens, etc., besides a number of inferior places. It is estimated that during the fall and winter season about 30,000 persons nightly attend the performances at these places.

The principal telegraph lines of the country begin or terminate in New York. There is also a line connecting the principal points of the city, and used for local business.

The public buildings are numerous and imposing, and the city is surpassed by only a few of the capitals of Europe in this respect.



CITY HALL.

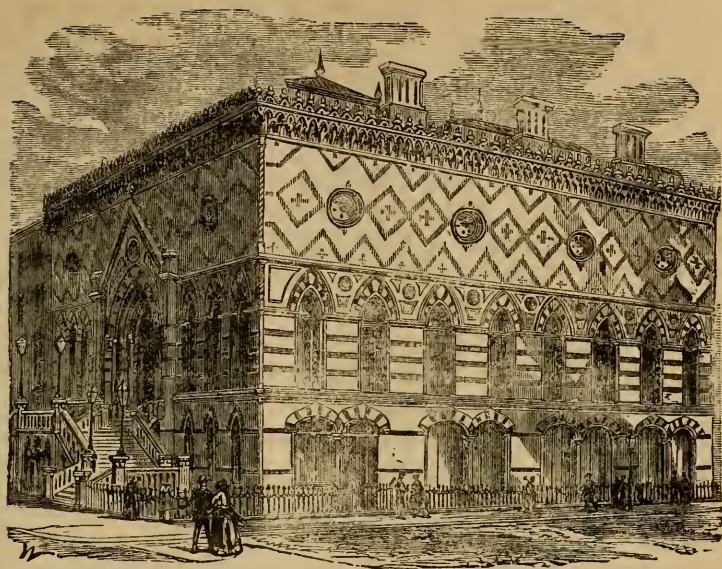
The *City Hall* is a fine edifice of white marble, 216 feet in length, situated in the City Hall Park. The foundation was laid in 1803, and the building was opened for the use of the municipal Government in 1812. It is handsomely furnished and decorated with paintings and statuary. The *County Court House*, in the rear of the City Hall, is a splendid building of white marble in the Italian style of architecture, 250 feet long, 150 feet wide, and 3 stories high, the whole being surmounted by a fine dome, the summit of which will be 210 feet above the street. The *Custom House*, on Nassau street, corner of William, is a splendid building of Quincy granite, erected for a Merchants' Exchange, at a cost of over \$1,800,000, including the ground. It is entirely fire proof, and covers the whole block, being 200 feet long, by 171 to 144 feet wide, and 124 feet to the top of the dome. The front is ornamented with a portico, resting on 18 massive Ionic columns. The *Sub-Treasury* of the United States, on Wall and Nassau streets, is built of white marble, in the Doric style. It cost, including the ground, \$1,195,000. The *Hall of Justice*, or the "*Tombs*," on Centre street, between Leonard and Franklin, includes

the halls of the Court of Sessions, and the police courts, and the city prison. The prison contains 150 cells. The building is in the Egyptian style of architecture, is constructed of light granite, and is 253 feet long, by 200 wide.

The Literary and Scientific institutions are numerous. There are about 260 free schools in the city, 89 of which are primary, and 15 for colored children. The buildings used are mostly of brick, are large, and are provided with every convenience. The annual attendance is about 200,000. They are liberally supported by the city. Besides these, a number of private institutions are supported in part by the city.

The *University of New York* occupies a gothic building of white marble, on University place, opposite Washington Square. It was founded in 1831. It has about 25 professors and tutors, and about 336 students. Its library contains over 5000 volumes. The *New York Free College*, Lexington avenue and 23d street, is a handsome building, erected in 1848. The students, whose number is limited to 1000, are chosen from the pupils of the public schools only, and here receive a thoroughly collegiate education free of charge. The *Cooper Institute*, on Astor place, is an imposing building of brown stone, erected at a cost of \$600,000, and presented to the city of New York by Peter Cooper, Esq. It contains a free reading-room and library, and affords a free education for the poorer classes in the practical arts and sciences. One of its departments is a school of design for women. The basement is occupied by an immense lecture-room. The *General Theological Seminary*, West 20th street, between 9th and 10th avenues, is the principal school of the Protestant Episcopal Church. The other institutions of importance are *Columbia College*, 49th street, between Madison and 4th avenues; the *Lyceum of Natural History*, the *Union Theological Seminary*, the *New York Historical Society*, the *American Geographical and Statistical Society*, the *New York Law Institute*, the *College of St. Francis Xavier*, the *College of Physicians and Surgeons*, the *College of Pharmacy*, and *Rutgers' Female College*.

The Libraries are excellent. The principal is the *Astor Library*, founded by John Jacob Astor, and enlarged by his son William B. Astor. The collection numbers over 150,000 volumes. It is free to the public, and is open daily (Sundays and holidays excepted), from 9 to 5 o'clock. The books cannot be taken from the reading-room. The *Mercantile Library*, in Clinton Hall, Astor place, contains about 90,000 volumes. Its privileges are extended only to members, who



ACADEMY OF DESIGN.

pay a small subscription annually. The *Society Library*, 67 University place, contains over 55,000 volumes, and consists of one of the most valuable collections of books in the city. Its privileges are limited to members and such friends as they may introduce. The *New York Historical Library*, 2d avenue and 11th street, contains over 30,000 volumes, and a valuable collection of coins and antiquities. The others are the *Apprentices' Library*, 18,000 volumes; *American Institute Library*, 10,000 volumes; *City Library*, 5000 volumes; *Law Institute Library*; *Young Men's Christian Association Library*, about 15,000 volumes; *General Theological Seminary Library*, 18,000 volumes; and the *Library of the Union Theological Seminary*, 26,000 volumes.

The Art Galleries are, the *National Academy of Design*, whose elegant hall, at the corner of 4th avenue and 23d street, forms one of the chief ornaments of the city; and the *Artists' Fund Society*.

The monuments, fountains, etc., are few in number, and insignificant in appearance. The principal are the Worth Monument, at the intersection of Broadway and 5th avenue; and the Martyrs' Monument, in Trinity Church-yard.

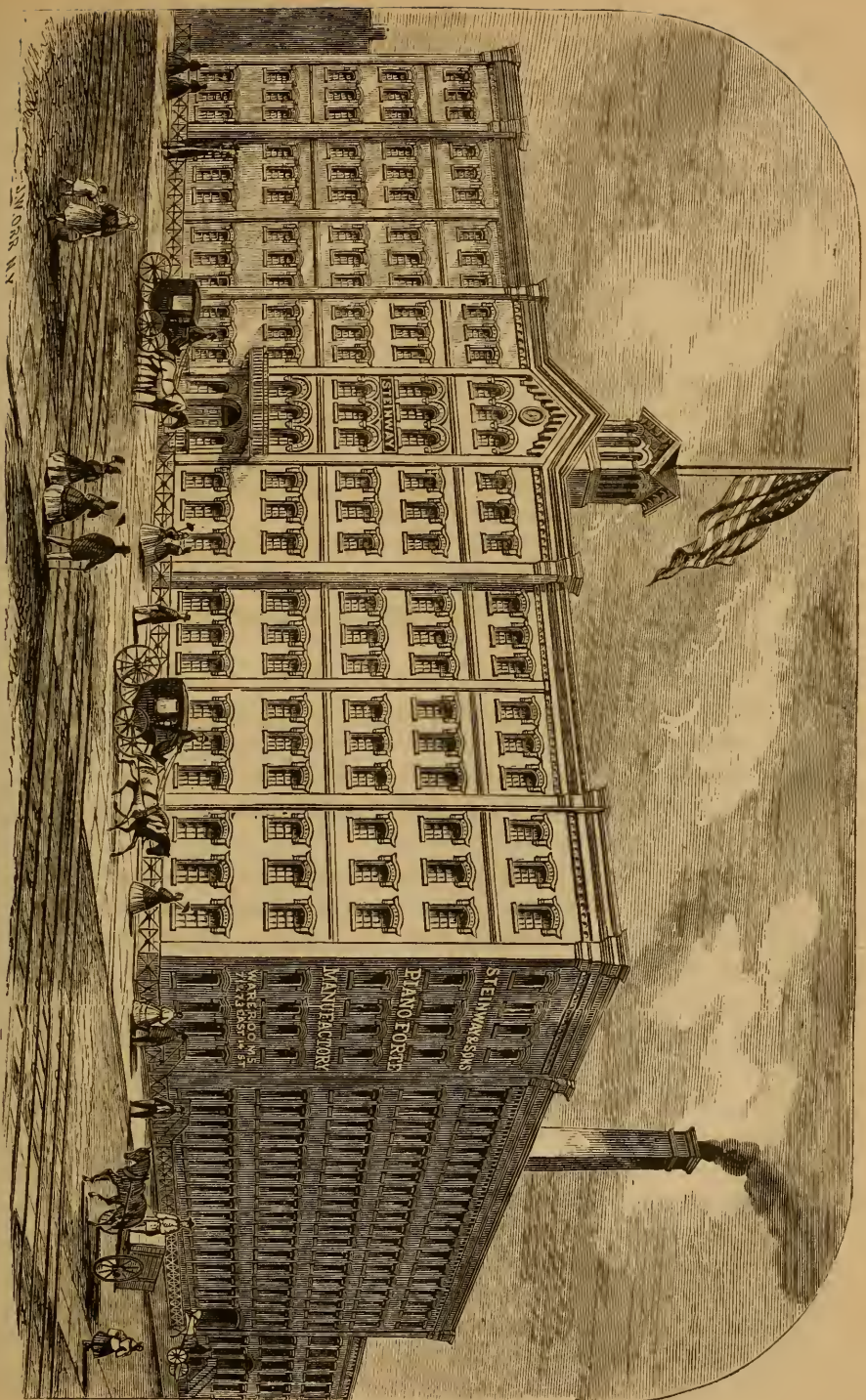
The churches are numerous and represent every denomination of Christians. Many are magnificent structures, erected at great ex-

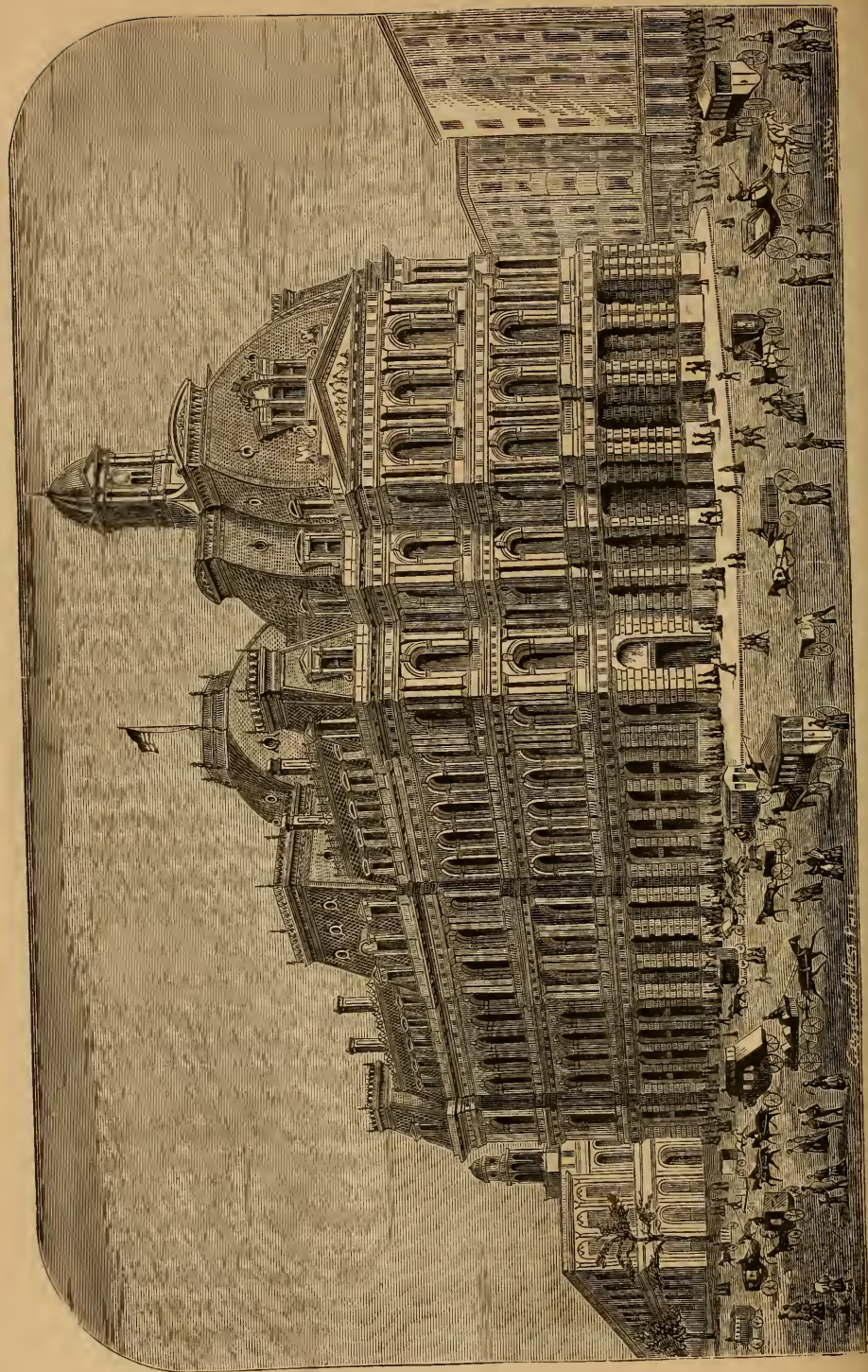
pense and in the highest style of art. The principal is *Trinity Church*, Protestant Episcopal, on Broadway, opposite Wall street. It was founded in 1696, and the present is the third edifice which has marked the site, the others having been destroyed by fire. The present church was begun in 1839, and completed in 1846. It is 192 feet by 80 feet, and 60 feet high. The steeple is 284 feet high, and from it the best view of the city and suburbs, the bay, etc., is to be obtained. The church is of brown stone, and is beautifully ornamented with carvings, sculptures, stained-glass windows, etc. The spire contains a clock and a fine chime of bells. The church is situated in the midst of an old grave-yard, which is one of the most interesting spots in the city. *Trinity Church* is the richest church in the Union, its property being estimated at over \$60,000,000. *Grace Church*, Protestant Episcopal, Broadway and 10th street, is a beautiful structure of light-colored stone, built in 1845. The interior is very fine. The others, conspicuous for their elegance and splendor, are *St. Patrick's Cathedral* (Roman Catholic), now building, on 5th avenue and 50th street, *St. George's*, *Trinity Chapel*, *St. Paul's* (Methodist), *St. Stephen's* (Roman Catholic), and the *Temple Emmanuel* (Jewish). The *Bible House*, occupying the square bounded by 3d and 4th avenues, and 8th and 9th streets, is a massive brick structure, and is the property, and the scene of the operations, of the American Bible Society. Upwards of 500 operatives are employed here.

The Charitable and Benevolent Institutions are numerous, and of high and useful character. The *New York Hospital*, on West 59th near the Park, the *Institution for the Blind*, the *Deaf and Dumb Asylum*, the *Bloomingdale Asylum for the Insane*, the *New York Orphan Asylum* (besides which nearly all the religious denominations have similar institutions of their own), the *Bellevue Hospital*, *St. Luke's Hospital*, the *Five Points Mission*, the *Home of Industry*, the *New York Juvenile Asylum*, the *Institution for the Deaf and Dumb*, the *American Female Guardian Society*, the *Eye and Ear Infirmary*, the *City Dispensaries* (of which there are 8), and the *Lying-in Hospitals*, are the principal. Large sums are annually expended for charitable and benevolent purposes, by the city and the citizens.

The prisons of the city, with the exception of the Tombs, are located on Blackwell's Island. The city also provides a refuge for juvenile delinquents on Randall's Island, and a hospital for emigrants on Ward's Island. All of these are provided with splendid and spacious buildings.

STEINWAY & SONS' PIANO-FORTE MANUFACTORY, FOURTH AVENUE,
FROM VIEWING-BOAT ON RIVER, PHOTODUPLICATION, NEW YORK.





NEW POST OFFICE, BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

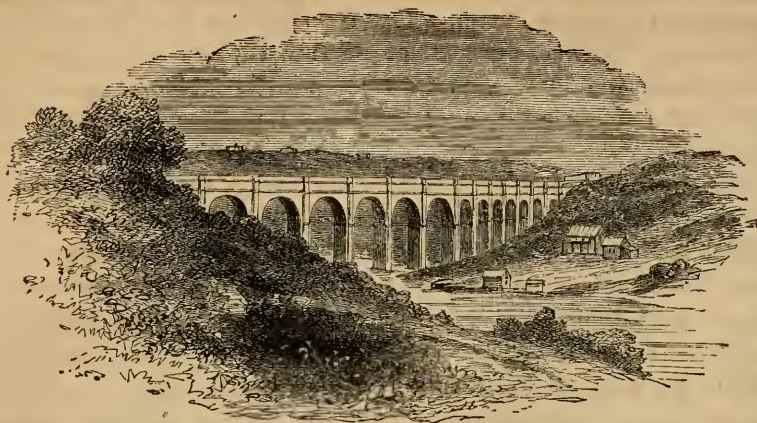
The cemeteries lie out of the city limits, with the exception of that belonging to Trinity Parish, which is located on the Hudson, near Washington Heights. The others number 12, and are situated on Long Island and in Westchester county. The principal are Greenwood and Calvary on Long Island, and Woodlawn in Westchester county.

The journals of New York stand at the head of the American press. The principal dailies are the *Herald*, *Tribune*, *Times*, *World*, *Sun*, *Standard*, *Evening Post*, *Express*, and *Evening Mail*. There are 140 newspapers and periodicals published in the city, claiming a circulation of over 5000 copies. New York is also the principal place in the Union for the publication of books. The office of the New York *Herald* is one of the handsomest buildings in the city.

The city is supplied with pure water by means of the Croton Aqueduct, from the Croton River, a small stream in Westchester county. The total length of the Aqueduct, to the reservoirs in the Central Park, is about 38 miles. It was begun in 1837, and completed in 1842, at an expense of \$10,375,000. It is the largest and most magnificent of all modern constructions of its class, and supplies the city with an abundance of pure and delightful drinking water. The water is conducted by the Aqueduct from the Croton River to the reservoirs at the High Bridge (on which bridge it crosses the Harlem River) and those in the Central Park, from which it is distributed over the city in large iron pipes, there being a small distributing reservoir on 5th avenue, at the corner of 42d street. The buildings, both public and private, of the city are thoroughly supplied with water. Upwards of 300 miles of water pipes have been laid through the streets, and every portion of the city is well supplied in this respect. The capacity of all the reservoirs is nearly 2,000,000,000 of gallons.

The city is lighted with gas, which is supplied by several private companies. There are upwards of 15,000 gas lamps in the streets, which burn from dusk until dawn.

The city is divided into 22 wards, and is governed by a Mayor and Common Council, elected by the people. The Mayor is chosen once in two years. The council is divided into a Board of Aldermen, 17 in number, elected for two years, and a Board of Councilmen, 25 in number, chosen annually. The police force consists of a Board of Commissioners, to whom the direct control of the force is entrusted, a Marshal, and about 2100 officers and men. They are dressed in a neat uniform of dark blue cloth, are armed with clubs and revolvers,



HIGH BRIDGE, HARLEM.

and are drilled regularly in military tactics. There are 33 precincts, including the detective squad. The force is charged with the duty of guarding about 300 day and 400 night posts, about 425 miles of streets, and 14 miles of piers. There are 25 station houses fitted up with lodging rooms for the men, and having rooms also for the accommodation of wandering or destitute persons, large numbers of whom thus receive temporary shelter.

The Fire Department is under the control of a Board of Commissioners. It consists of a Chief Engineer, an Assistant Engineer, 10 District Engineers, and over 500 men and 46 horses. There are 34 steam fire engines, 4 hand engines, and 12 hook and ladder companies in the department. The men are regularly enlisted, and are paid by the city. There is a fire alarm telegraph, with about 800 stations, extending through the city, and it is so arranged that the most inexperienced person can at once telegraph the exact location of a fire to all the engine houses in the city. It requires but 15 seconds in the day, and one minute at night, to get the engines ready for action and start them on the way to a fire. A system of fire patrols is maintained by the city and by the insurance companies. There are also a number of lofty look-out towers, from which a constant watch is kept.

According to the United States census of 1870, the population of New York is 942,337. There can be no doubt, however, that the

actual population is over 1,000,000. The rate at which the city has grown is shown by the following table:

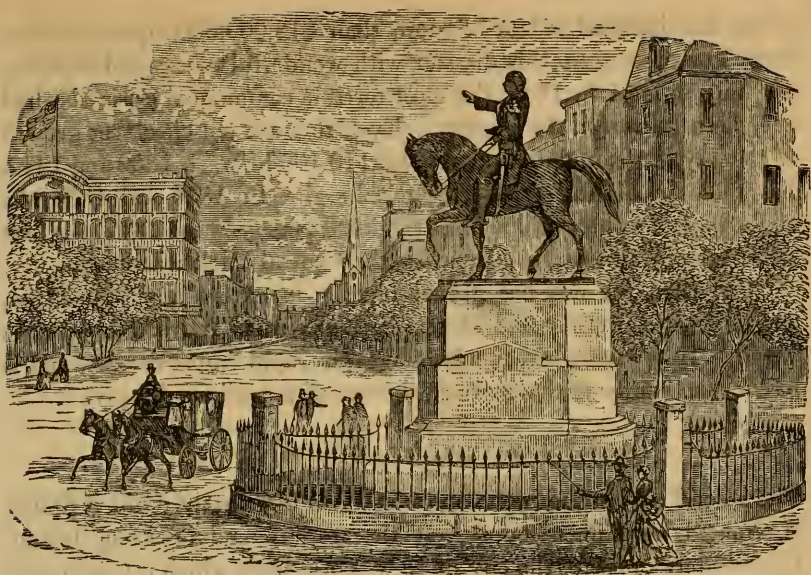
Year.	Population.
1656,	1,000
1756,	10,381
1800,	60,489
1820,	123,706
1830,	202,589
1840,	312,852
1850,	515,547
1860,	814,287

On the 12th of September, 1609, Henry Hudson, an English navigator in the service of the Dutch East India Company, discovered Manhattan Island. The Dutch made a temporary settlement on the island in 1612, and established a permanent colony in 1623, when a fort was built, and the settlement named New Amsterdam. The first white child, Sarah Rapelje, was born in the same year, and in 1626, Peter Minuits, the Dutch Governor, arrived. In 1633, a new fort was begun on the present site of the Battery. Previous to 1638 tobacco was cultivated and slavery was introduced. In 1656, there were 1000 inhabitants and 120 houses in the town; in 1658, wharfs were constructed, and in 1662 a windmill was built. In August, 1664, an English fleet arrived in the bay, and took possession of the town in the name of the King of England. No resistance was offered, and the name of the town was changed to New York, in honor of the Duke of York and Albany, afterwards James II., to whom Charles II. had granted the entire province. In July, 1673, the Dutch fleet recaptured the town, drove out the English, and named it New Orange. The peace between Great Britain and the Dutch, which closed the war, restored the town to the English, November 10th, 1674, and the name of New York was resumed. The Dutch Government was replaced by the English system under a liberal charter, and during the remainder of the seventeenth century the town grew rapidly in population and size. In 1700, New York contained 4500 white, and 750 black inhabitants, and about 750 dwellings. In 1689, there was a brief disturbance, known as Leisler's Rebellion. In 1702, a terrible fever was brought from St. Thomas', and carried off 600 persons, one-tenth of the whole population. In 1696, the first Trinity Church was built, and in 1719, the first Presbyterian Church was built. In 1711, a slave market was established; in 1725, the *New York Gazette*, the fifth of the Colonial newspapers, was estab-

lished ; in 1732, stages ran to Boston, the journey occupying 14 days ; and in 1735, the people made their first manifestation of hostility to Great Britain, which was drawn forth by the infamous prosecution by the officers of the Crown of Rip Van Dam, who had been the acting Governor of the town. In 1741, a severe fire occurred in the lower part of the city, destroying the old Dutch fort and the Dutch church, and in the same year the yellow fever raged with great violence. The principal event of the year, however, was the so-called negro plot for the destruction of the town. Though the reality of the plot was never proved, the greatest alarm prevailed ; the fire in the fort was declared to be the work of the negroes, numbers of whom were arrested ; and upon the sole evidence of a single servant girl a number of the poor wretches were hanged. Several whites were also charged with being accomplices of the negroes. One of these, John Ury, a Roman Catholic priest, and, as is now believed, an innocent man, was hanged in August. In the space of six months 154 negroes and 20 whites were arrested ; 20 negroes were hanged, 13 were burned at the stake, and 78 were transported. The rest were discharged. In 1750 a theatre was established, and in 1755 St. Paul's Church was built. New York took a prominent part in the resistance of the Colonies to the aggressions of the mother country, and, in spite of the presence of a large number of Tories, responded cordially to the call of the Colonies for men and money during the war.

On the 26th of August, 1776, the battle of Long Island having been lost by the Americans, the city was occupied by the British, who held it until the close of the war. It suffered very much at their hands. Nearly all the churches, except the Episcopal, were occupied by them as prisons, riding-schools, and stables ; and the schools and colleges were closed. On the 21st of September, 1776, a fire destroyed 493 houses, all the west side of Broadway from Whitehall to Barclay street, or about one-eighth of the city ; and on the 7th of August, 1778, about 300 buildings on East River were burned. On the 25th of November, 1783, the British evacuated the city, which was at once occupied by the American army.

In 1785 the first Federal Congress met in the City Hall, which stood at the corner of Wall and Nassau streets, and on the 30th of April 1789, George Washington was inaugurated first President of the United States on the same spot. By 1791 the city had spread to the lower end of the present City Hall Park, and was extending along the Boston Road (Bowery) and Broadway. In 1799, the Manhattan



UNION SQUARE. STATUE OF WASHINGTON.

Company, for supplying the city with fresh water, was chartered. On the 20th of September, 1803, the corner-stone of the City Hall was laid. Free schools were established in 1805. In the same year the yellow fever raged with violence, and had the effect of spreading the population by driving them up the island, where many located themselves permanently. In 1807, Robert Fulton navigated the first steamboat from New York to Albany.

The War of 1812-15 for a while stopped the growth of the city, but after the return of peace, its onward progress was resumed. In August, 1812, experimental gas lamps were placed in the Park, though the use of gas for purposes of lighting was not begun until 1825. In 1822, the yellow fever again drove the population higher up the island, and caused a rapid growth of the city above Canal street. In 1825, the Erie Canal was completed. This great work, by placing the trade of the West in the hands of New York, gave a powerful impetus to the growth of the city, which was now increasing at the rate of from 1000 to 1500 houses per year. In 1832 and 1834, the cholera raged severely, carrying off upwards of 4484 persons in the two years. In 1835, the "great fire" occurred. This terrible conflagration (December 16th) laid 648 houses, almost the entire business portion of the city, south of Wall street, and east of Broadway, in

ashes, and inflicted a loss of more than \$18,000,000 upon the city. New York rose from this disaster with wonderful energy and rapidity, but only to meet, in 1837, the most terrible commercial crisis that had ever been known in the country. Even this did not check the growth of the city, the population increasing 110,100 between 1830 and 1840. In 1842, the Croton water was introduced. In 1849 and 1854, the cholera again appeared, killing over 5400 persons. In 1852, the first street railway was built. In 1858, the Central Park was begun.

Since then the city has grown rapidly in extent and population, and is fast becoming one of the most beautiful and brilliant in the world. It possesses every advantage for rapid improvement, and is moving on surely to the accomplishment of a glorious destiny.

BROOKLYN,

The second city in the State, and the third city in the United States, is situated in Kings county, on the western end of Long Island, immediately opposite the city of New York, from which it is separated by the East River. The city extends from Newtown Creek, including Green Point, to the boundary below Greenwood, a direct distance of $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and nearly 10 miles following the low-water line. From the river it stretches back inland for about 4 miles. The city proper is divided into the Western District (W. D.), Williamsburg, Greenpoint, the Eastern District (E. D.), and South Brooklyn. The ground on which the city is located is for the most part flat and low, and was formerly marshy, but a portion of the city is built upon a line of bold heights overlooking the bay, and commanding a fine view of New York and the harbor. The general appearance of the city is handsome and attractive. It is well built, and some portions of it will compare favorably with New York. The streets are broad, straight, and well-paved, and many of them are delightfully shaded with noble trees. Brooklyn covers nearly as much ground as New York, but its population is only about one-third as great, and is not so much crowded. Small houses are the rule in this city, large residences being rare, except in the wealthier quarters. Many of the streets are lined with tasteful cottage residences, in front of which are yards of considerable size, ornamented with flowers, shrubbery, etc.

The site of Brooklyn was originally very irregular, but the constant improvements which have been carried on during the growth of the city have very much changed the primitive appearance of the land. Immediately opposite the lower end of New York, is a ridge 70 feet

above the level of the East River, known as "The Heights." This is the wealthiest and most fashionable quarter of Brooklyn, though it is now rapidly giving way to business edifices. The principal thoroughfare is Fulton street, stretching from the Fulton Ferry to the City Hall, from which point it turns abruptly to the eastward, and extends to the city limits, under the name of Fulton avenue. It is enclosed as far as the City Hall, about one mile, with large and handsome stores and offices. From the City Hall eastward, it is less substantially built.

The proximity of Brooklyn to New York and its facilities for economical living have been the chief causes of its rapid growth. Thousands of persons living in Brooklyn conduct their business in New York, and pass and repass between the cities daily. The trade of Brooklyn is mostly local. The city is largely engaged in manufactures, but its productions are sold chiefly through New York. Large quantities of tobacco are manufactured here, and the city has a large trade in flour, sugar and whiskey.

The public buildings are among the handsomest in the country. The *City Hall*, at the southern end of Fulton street, is an imposing edifice of white marble, 162 by 102 feet, and 75 feet high, surmounted by a dome, the top of which is 153 feet from the ground. It was erected at a cost of \$200,000. Just in the rear of the City Hall, and fronting on Joralemon street, is the *County Court House*, 140 feet wide, and 315 feet deep, built of white marble, in the Corinthian style of architecture. It cost \$543,000. The *Academy of Music*, and the *Mercantile Library*, on Montague street, are built in the modern Gothic style, of a fine quality of brick ornamented with stone, and are among the handsomest buildings in the city.

There are nearly 200 churches in Brooklyn, in consequence of which the place is frequently called "The City of Churches." Some of these are magnificent edifices, but the majority are simple and modest in their appearance. They are all in prosperous condition, and there are, perhaps, few cities in the land whose church finances make so favorable a showing as those of Brooklyn.

The city is well supplied with public schools of every grade, and contains a number of thriving private schools and academies. The average attendance is over 50,000. There are also schools for colored children. During the year ending February 1st, 1864, the amount expended by the city for purposes of education was \$229,845.61.

The Literary Institutions are of a high character. The *Mercantile*

Library contains about 35,000 volumes, and is supported by the subscriptions of its members. The *Long Island Historical Society* possesses a fine collection of 15,000 volumes, besides numerous manuscripts and historical relics. The *United States Lyceum* is located in the Navy Yard, and possesses a large and valuable collection of curiosities, geological and mineralogical specimens. The *Lyceum*, in Washington street, possesses a splendid granite building and a fine lecture hall. The *Art Association* holds two exhibitions in each year. Besides these, are the *Philharmonic Society*, and several other societies devoted to literary, scientific, and musical ends.

The Charitable Institutions are the *Long Island College Hospital*; the *City Hospital*, in Raymond street, with beds for 170 patients; the *Graham Institution*, for the relief of respectable aged, indigent females; the *Orphan Asylum of the City of Brooklyn*, which shelters about 150 children; the *Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor*, a noble charity, which has in a single year rendered substantial aid to 8000 persons; the *Marine Hospital*, belonging to the United States; the *Church Charity Foundation*, for the relief of indigent and destitute persons; and the *Brooklyn* and *Homœopathic Dispensaries*. Besides these, are a number of religious and private charities, which are well sustained.

There are several small squares and parks in the city, the principal of which is Washington Park (Fort Greene), occupying an elevated plateau northeast of the City Hall. During the Revolutionary war, the site of this park was occupied by extensive fortifications designed to cover the Long Island approaches to the city of New York. The ruins of Fort Greene, the principal work, still remain. The park is tastefully laid out, and commands a good view of the city.

During the last few years, a large park, known as Prospect Park, has been laid out in the southwestern portion of the city. It contains 550 acres, and promises to be one of the handsomest parks in the Union.

The *United States Navy Yard* is situated within the city limits, on the south side of Wallabout Bay, which lies in the northeast part of Brooklyn. It occupies about 40 acres of ground, enclosed by a stone wall, and contains a large dry-dock, constructed at a cost of \$1,000,000, several extensive shops for the construction of vessels, machinery, arms, etc. It is one of the principal naval stations of the Republic. To the north of the Navy Yard, stands the *Marine Hospital*, in the midst of extensive grounds. During the war of the Revolution, the



UNITED STATES NAVY YARD, BROOKLYN.

British prison ships were anchored in Wallabout Bay. Large numbers of American prisoners of war were confined in these hulks, and it is said that 11,500 of them perished from ill usage and impure air. They were hastily buried on the shore of the bay. By 1808, their bones were entirely exposed, the tide having washed out their graves. In that year, their bones were collected and deposited in 13 coffins, inscribed with the names of the 13 original States, and deposited in a vault in Hudson avenue, near the present Navy Yard. The Government property at the Navy Yard, not counting the shipping, is estimated at \$25,000,000.

The *Atlantic Dock*, in South Brooklyn, opposite Governor's Island, is a very extensive work. It embraces within the piers an area of nearly 41 acres, and can accommodate ships of the largest size. It was built by a company incorporated in 1840, with a capital of \$1,000,000. The outer pier extends for 3000 feet along Buttermilk Channel, and is covered with large granite warehouses. It is the centre of one of the largest grain trades in the world.

The cemeteries of Brooklyn are used by that city in common with

New York. The principal is *Greenwood*, in the extreme southern part of Brooklyn, about 3 miles from Fulton Ferry. The street cars run to the gates. It is beautifully laid out, contains 242 acres of ground, and is one of the most beautiful cemeteries in the world. Many of its monuments are noted as works of art. It commands extensive views of the ocean and of the bay and city of New York. The cemeteries of the *Evergreens* and *Cypress Hills* lie about 4 miles to the eastward of Greenwood.

Brooklyn is connected with New York by numerous ferries. It is lighted throughout with gas, and is abundantly supplied with pure water from the Ridgewood water-works. There is also a steam fire department, and an efficient police force. The city is divided into 20 wards, and is governed by a Mayor and Common Council. The population in 1870 was 396,300.

Brooklyn was first settled in 1625, by a band of Walloons, sent out as agriculturists by the Dutch West India Company. These settled on the shores of the bay now used by the Navy Yard, and gave to their settlement the name of Waalboght, or Walloon's Bay, which has since been corrupted into Wallabout Bay. From this beginning sprang a straggling town, to which the Dutch gave the name of Breuckelen, from a village in Holland. The first white man who actually settled within the limits of the present city of Brooklyn, was George Jansen de Rapelje. The Dutch Government bought the title to the land from the Canarsee Indians, a large tribe which dwelt in the southern part of what is now Kings county. In 1641, the Dutch allowed the English to settle on Long Island, on the condition of their taking the oath of allegiance to the States General. In 1654, the erection of the first church was begun by order of Governor Stuyvesant. It was located at Flatbush. Previous to this, the settlers on Long Island attended worship in New Amsterdam.

The history of Brooklyn until the period of the Revolution is uneventful. During that struggle, it was the scene of several important events. On the 26th of August, 1776, the battle of Long Island was fought, the battlefield being within the present city limits in the direction of Flatbush. The American army was defeated and compelled to abandon Long Island. The occupation of New York by the British forces was the result.

Brooklyn grew very slowly after its settlement. In 1698, it contained 509 persons; in 1800, 3298; in 1820, 7175. In 1834, it was incorporated as a city. In 1855, it was consolidated with the city of

Williamsburg and the town of Bushwick, including the village of Greenpoint, under the general name of Brooklyn.

BUFFALO,

The third city in the State, is situated in Erie county, at the eastern extremity of Lake Erie, in latitude $42^{\circ} 53' N.$, longitude $78^{\circ} 55' W.$ It is 352 miles by the Erie Canal, and 300 miles by the New York Central Railway, west of Albany, and 460 miles northwest of New York by railway. It is connected with Albany and the Hudson River by the Erie Canal, and has railway connections with all parts of the Union.

The water front of the city is 5 miles long, half of it lying along Lake Erie, and the rest along the Niagara River. Buffalo Creek extends through the southern portion of the city, and forms a part of the harbor. "The harbor of Buffalo is now one of the best in the great chain of lakes. The present harbor is formed by Buffalo Creek, the Blackwell Canal, the Erie and Ohio Basins, and North Buffalo Harbor. Buffalo Creek is navigable for more than 2 miles from its entrance into the lake for vessels drawing 12 feet of water. Nearly parallel to, and from 200 to 800 feet from it, is the Blackwell Ship-Canal, one mile and a quarter long, and connected with it by 4 ship-canal slips. About 1 mile from the mouth of the creek, and connected with it by a ship-canal slip, is the Ohio Basin, containing 10 acres. A pier or breakwater on the south side of the creek, and a sea wall next the lake, give ample protection from storms. On the end of this pier, extending about 1500 feet into the lake, is a mole on which is the Government light-house. On the north side of the creek is another pier, extending into the lake about 500 feet. At nearly right angles to the south pier, and distant from it and the north pier 600 feet, commences the Erie Basin Pier, extending towards North Buffalo Harbor 5000 feet, and about 1000 feet distant from the shore line of the lake. The intermediate space between this pier and the shore line, 1000 by 5000 feet, is called the Erie Basin Harbor, which has sufficient depth of water for vessels drawing 10 feet. At the lower end of the Erie Basin sea-wall is a mole, and vessels can enter it at this point, or from the entrance through Buffalo Creek. About three-quarters of a mile from the mole of the Erie Basin Pier is the Black Rock Pier, enclosing a portion of the Niagara River, about 2 miles long and from 200 to 600 feet wide, forming what is called 'Black Rock Harbor.' The water in this harbor is shoal, and only vessels of light draught can enter it.



VIEW FROM WEST POINT.

It forms for more than a mile the Erie Canal, and boats drawing 6 feet of water can pass through it. Buffalo Creek, the Blackwell Canal and slips, the Ohio and Erie Basin harbors, give abundance of sea-room to accommodate a fleet of 300 sail and steam vessels. The Erie Canal from Buffalo to Tonawanda, a distance of 12 miles, is nearly parallel with the Niagara River, and for a very considerable portion of the distance is only separated from it by an embankment of from 100 to 400 feet in width. The Niagara River from North Buffalo to Tonawanda, a distance of 8 miles, has from 16 to 25 feet of water, with good bottom for anchorage and wide river for a harbor. The rapid growth of the West and the large augmentation in the receipt of cereals have given rise to immense grain warehouses, called elevators, which were introduced to facilitate and cheapen the transshipment of this kind of produce. There are now built and in successful operation 27 of these grain warehouses, besides 2 floating elevators. They have a storage capacity for 5,830,000 bushels, and have a transfer capacity equal to 2,808,000 bushels in each 24 hours. They were first introduced in 1842. There are 6 ship-yards in the city, 4 of which have

dry-docks. They will admit the largest vessels navigating the lakes. There is a marine railway and a very powerful derriek for handling boilers and heavy machinery."

The position of Buffalo has placed in its hands the immense commerce of the Great Lakes and the Erie Canal, and its trade has been greatly increased by the great lines of railways which connect it with all parts of the United States and Canada. Its grain trade is enormous, and is growing rapidly. In 1863, the total number of vessels entering and clearing at the port of Buffalo was 15,376. These had a total tonnage of 6,757,903. In the same year the trade of Buffalo by lake, rail, and canal amounted to \$256,214,614. In the same year there were received at this port grain and flour estimated as wheat to the amount of 64,735,510 bushels. It is not an unusual sight during the season of navigation to see a fleet of 150 sailing vessels and steamers enter Buffalo harbor from the west during a period of 24 hours.

The manufacturing interests are increasing rapidly. Iron, leather, agricultural implements, and oil refining are the most important. It is believed that Buffalo will soon rank next to Pittsburg in its iron manufactures. Its proximity to the iron and coal regions of New York, Pennsylvania and Ohio afford it great facilities for the economical working of this metal.

The city is well built. The streets are broad and well paved, and as a rule intersect each other at right angles. The stores and business houses are substantial, and in many cases handsome. The business portion of the city lies near the water. Farther back are the streets devoted to private residences. These are generally well shaded, and are lined with tasteful and sometimes with elegant dwellings. There are six public squares, viz: Niagara, Lafayette Place, Washington, Franklin, Delaware Place, and Terrace Parks.

The public buildings include the *City Hall*, 2 *Court-Houses*, the *City Penitentiary*, the *City Jail*, the *Custom House*, the *State Arsenal*, and the building of the *Young Men's Christian Association*.

Among the Literary and Benevolent Institutions are the *Buffalo University* and *Medical School*; the *Young Men's Association*, with a library of over 13,000 volumes; the *Buffalo Female Academy*; the *City and Marine Hospitals*; *St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum*; and the *Hospital of the Sisters of Charity*. All of these are provided with handsome and commodious buildings.

There are upwards of 70 churches in the city, several of which are noted for their beauty and grandeur.

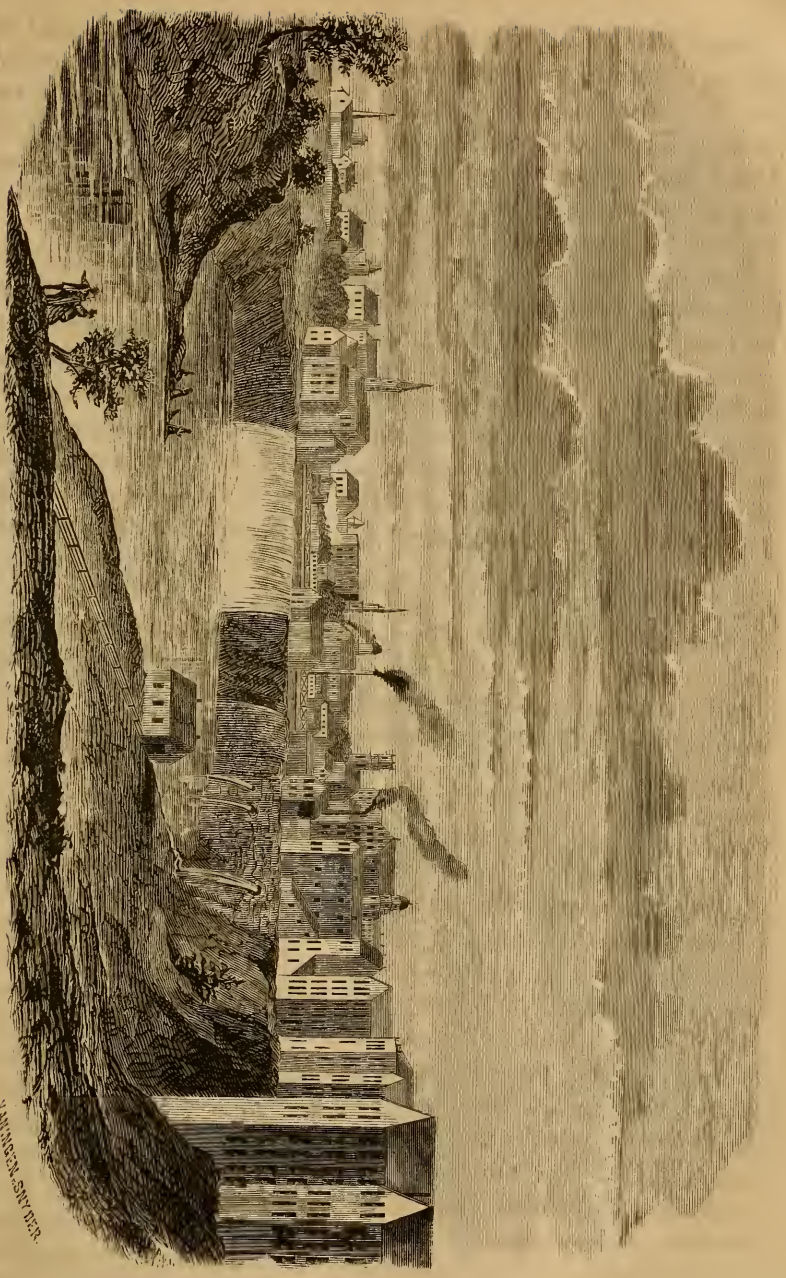
The city is lighted with gas, and supplied with pure water, and its thoroughfares are traversed by street railways. The city is divided into 13 wards, and is governed by a Mayor and Council chosen by the people. There are over 30 public schools, besides a Central High School, and a number of private institutions in the city. There are 18 publications issued here, 6 of which are daily, 8 weekly, and 3 semi-weekly newspapers. The population in 1870 was 117,714.

Buffalo was laid out in 1801 by the Holland Company, and in 1812 it became a military post, at which time it contained about 200 houses. In December, 1813, it was captured and burned by the British and Indians, and only 2 houses left standing. Congress made a donation of \$80,000 to the settlers to assist them in rebuilding the place. In 1832, it was incorporated as a city, and in 1852, the charter was amended so as to include Black Rock. Since 1814, the growth of the city has been very rapid. It contained only 2095 inhabitants in 1820, its wonderful growth being confined almost entirely to half a century.

ROCHESTER,

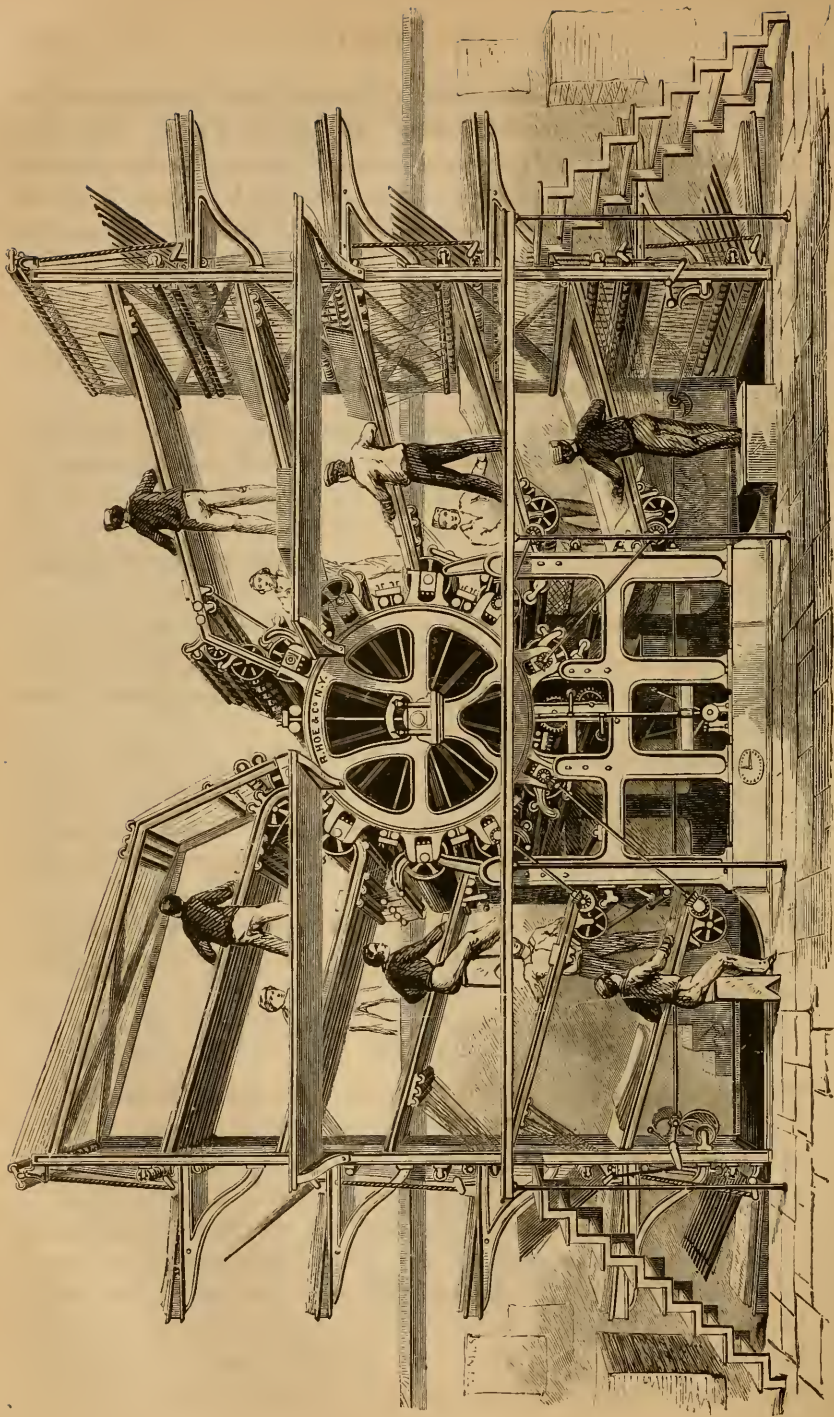
In Monroe county, is the fifth city in importance in the State. It is situated on both sides of the Genesee River, 7 miles from its entrance into Lake Ontario, 230 miles west by north of Albany, and 68 miles east-northeast of Buffalo. Latitude $43^{\circ} 8' N.$, longitude $77^{\circ} 51' W.$ The ground upon which the city stands is generally flat, and the corporate limits cover an area of 8 square miles, nearly all of which is closely built up. The streets are broad and straight, and are well paved. In the business sections are many handsome buildings, and the private residences are generally tasteful and often elegant.

The Genesee River is navigable to the city limits, but the docks are situated at the mouth of the river, 7 miles distant. These are connected with the city by railway, and by lines of steamers. Rochester controls a large trade on Lake Ontario. The Erie Canal passes through the city, crossing the river on a fine stone aqueduct. The Genesee Valley Canal connects with it here, and extends southward from Rochester to the Alleghany River. The Erie and New York Central railways and their branches have added much to the wealth and importance of the city. The unlimited water-power afforded by the Genesee, has been one of the chief sources of the prosperity of Rochester. Within a distance of 3 miles, the river has a descent of 226 feet, which it accomplishes in 3 perpendicular falls of 95, 20 and 75 feet. The upper falls lie within the city limits and are noted for their beauty.



GENESEE FALLS.

V. M. ANDERSON, SCULPTOR.



THE CELEBRATED TEN CYLINDER ROTARY PRINTING PRESS.

In consequence of the possession of this water-power, Rochester is now one of the principal manufacturing cities in the Union. The flour mills are the most extensive in the country. Shoes, iron ware, wooden ware, clothing, etc., are extensively manufactured. There is also an extensive trade in produce, which is collected here for shipment to other markets. The nurseries of Rochester are famous, and are unsurpassed.

The public buildings of the city are handsome. The principal are the *City Hall*, and the *Arcade*, the latter containing the Post Office and other Federal offices.

The Educational and Literary Institutions are the *University of Rochester*, with a fine edifice of brown stone, and an endowment of \$200,000; the *Rochester Theological Seminary*, under the control of the Baptists; the *Athenæum*; the *Public Library*; and the *Free Academy*. There over 20 public schools, in excellent condition, and a number of private schools.

The Charitable and Benevolent Institutions are *St. Mary's Hospital*, the *City Hospital*, the *Industrial School*, the *Home for the Friendless*, an *Insane Asylum*, two *Orphan Asylums*, and the *Western House of Refuge*, for boys, belonging to the State.

There are over 45 churches in the city, many of them elegant structures. The city is well supplied with water, and is lighted with gas. Street railways afford communication between its various parts. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. The population in 1870 was 62,315.

Rochester was settled in 1812, and was named in honor of Colonel Nathaniel Rochester, one of the pioneers of the city. It was incorporated as a city in 1834.

TROY,

The sixth city in the State, lies on both sides of the Hudson River, at the mouth of Poestenkill Creek, at the head of steamboat navigation, 6 miles northeast of Albany, and 151 miles north of New York. The principal portion of the city lies immediately along the river, for about 3 miles, communication between the two banks being maintained by means of a bridge and ferry boats. The city lies in a plain. At the southern end of the east side rises a bold hill, called Mount Ida, from which an extensive view may be gained of Troy, the river, and the surrounding country. In the northern part of the city is a rugged mass of rock, 200 feet high, called Mount Olympus.

MISCELLANIES.

ANCIENT LAWS OF THE PROVINCE OF NEW YORK.

The following laws are extracted from those established by the Duke of York for the government of New York, in the year 1664. This code (called the "Duke's Laws") was compiled under the direction of Nicolls, the first English Governor. It continued in force till the period of the Revolution in England, and ceased to have effect in 1691, when the General Assembly of the Province began to exercise a new legislative power under the sovereignty of King William:

Capital Laws.—1. If any person within this Government shall by direct exprest, impious or presumptuous ways, deny the true God and his Attributes, he shall be put to death.

2. If any person shall Commit any wilful and premeditated Murder, he shall be put to Death.

3. If any person Slayeth another with Sword or Dagger who hath no weapon to defend himself; he shall be put to Death.

4. If any person forcibly Stealeth or carrieth away any mankind; He shall be put to death.

5. If any person shall bear false witness maliciously and on purpose to take away a man's life, He shall be put to Death.

6. If any man shall Traitorously deny his Majestyes right and titles to his Crownes and Dominions, or shall raise armies to resist his Authority, He shall be put to Death.

7. If any man shall treacherously conspire or Publicly attempt to invade or Surprise any Town or Towns, Fort or Forts, within this Government, He shall be put to Death.

8. If any Child or Children, above sixteen years of age, and of Sufficient understanding, shall smite their natural Father or Mother, unless thereunto provoked and foret for their selfe preservation from Death or Mayming, at the Complaint of the said Father and Mother, and not otherwise, they being Sufficient witnesses thereof, that Child or those Children so offending shall be put to Death.

Bond Slavery.—No Christian shall be kept in Bondslavery villenage or Captivity, Except Such who shall be Judged thereunto by Authority, or such as willingly have sould, or shall sell themselves, In which Case a Record of such Servitude shall be entered in the Court of Sessions held for that Jurisdiction where Such Matters shall Inhabit, provided that nothing in the Law Contained shall be to the prejudice of Master or Dame who have or shall by any Indenture or Covenant take Apprentices for Terme of Years, or other Servants for Term of years or Life.

Church.—Whereas the publique Worship of God is much discredited for want of painful and able Ministers to Instruct the people in the true Religion and for want of Convenient places Capable to receive any Number or Assembly of people in a decent manner for Celebrating Gods holy Ordinances. These ensuing Lawes are to be observed in every parish (Viz.)

1. That in each Parish within this Government a church be built in the most Convenient part thereof, Capable to receive and accommodate two Hundred Persons.

2. To prevent Scandalous and Ignorant pretenders to the Ministry from in-

truding themselves as Teachers; No Minister shall be Admitted to Officiate, within the Government but such as shall produce Testimonials to the Governour, that he hath Received Ordination either from some Protestant Bishop, or Minister within some part of his Majesties Dominions or the Dominions of any foreign Prince of the Reformed Religion, upon which Testimony the Governour shall induce the said Minister into the parish that shall make presentation of him, as duely Elected by the Major part of the Inhabitants householders.

3. That the Minister of every Parish shall Preach constantly every Sunday, and shall also pray for the Kinge, Queene, Duke of Yorke, and the Royall family. And every person affronting or disturbing any Congregation on the Lords Day and on such publique days of fast and Thanksgiving as are appointed to be observed. After the presentments thereof by the Churchwardens to the Sessions and due Conviction thereof he shall be punished by fine or Imprisonment according to the merit and Nature of the offence, And every Minister shall also Publicly Administer the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper once every Year at the least in his Parish Church not denying the private benefit thereof to Persons that for want of health shall require the same in their houses, under the penalty of Loss of preferment unless the Minister be restrained in point of Conscience.

Fasting Days and Days of Thanks givin To be observed.—Whereas by an Act of Parliament the fifth Day of November is annually to be observed for the Great deliverance from the Gunpowder Treason, And whereas by one other Act of Parliament The thirtyeth Day of January is annually to be observed with Fasting and Prayer in all his Majesties Dominions to shew a hearty and Serious Repentance and Detestation of that Barbarous Murther Committed upon the Person of our late King Charles the first, thereby to divert Gods heavy Judgment from falling upon the whole Nation, as also by another Act of Parliament we are enjoined thankfully to acknowledge the providence of God upon the Nine and Twentieth Day of May for his Majesties Birth and Restoration to the Throne of his Royall Ancestors whereby Peace and unity is Established in all his Majesties Domains, Every Minister within his Severall Parish is enjoined to pray and Preach on these days and all other Persons are also enjoined to abstain from their Ordinary Laboure and Calling According to the true intent of both the said Acts.

Every Person Licenced to keep an Ordinary shall always be provided of strong and wholesome Beer, of four bushels of malt, at the least to a Hogshead which he shall not Sell at above two pence the quart under the penalty of twenty Shillings, for the first Offence, forty shillings for the Second, and loss of his Licence, It is permitted to any to Sell Beer out of Doores at a peny the Ale quart or under.

No Licenced Person shall suffer any to Drink excessively or at unseasonable hours after Nine of the Clock at night in or about any their houses upon penalty of two shillings six pence for every Offence if Complaint and prooffe be made thereof.

All Injuries done to the Indians of what nature whatsoever; shall upon their Complaint and prooffe thereof in any Court have speedy redress gratis, against any Christian in as full and Ample manner, (with reasonable allowance for damage) as if the Case had been betwixt Christian and Christian.

No Indian whatsoever shall at any time be Suffered to Powaw or performe outward worship to the Devil in any Towne within this Government.

Lying and Fulse News.—Every Person of age of discretion which shall be re-

puted of fourteen years or upwards, who shall wittingly and willingly forge or Publish fals newes whereof no Certain Auther nor Authentique Letter out of any part of Europe can be produced, whereby the minds of People are frequently disquieted or exasperated in relation to publique Affairs, or particular Persons injured in their good names and Credits by such Common deceites and abuses Upon due prooffe made by Sufficient witnesses before the Governour or any Court of Sessions the Person so Offending in ordinary Cases shall for the first offence be fined ten shillings, for the second offence twenty shillings and for the third offence forty Shillings and if the party be unable to pay the same he shall be Sett in the Stocks so longe, or publiquely whipt with so many stripes as the Governor or any Court of Sessions shall think fitt not exceeding forty stripes: or four houres Sitting in the Stocks, and for the fourth offence he shall be bound to his good behaviour, paying Cost or Service to the Informer and witnesses, such as shall be judged reasonable satisfaction, But in Cases of high nature and publique Concernes, the fine or punishment shall be increast according to the discretion of the Governor and Council onely.

If any Masters or Dames shall Tyrannically and Cruelly abuse their Servants, upon Complaint made by the Servant to the Constable and Overseers, they shall take Speedy redress therein, by Admonishing the Master or Dame not to provoke their Servants, And upon the Servants Second Complaint, of the like usage It shall be Lawful for the Constable and Overseers to protect and Sustaine such Servants in their Houses till due Order be taken for their Reliefe in the ensuing Sessions Provided that due Notice thereof be Speedily given to Such Masters or Dames, and the Cause why such Servants are Protected and Sustained, and in Case any Master or Dame by such Tyranny and Cruelty, and not casually, shall smite out the Eye or Tooth of any such man or maid Servant, or shall otherwise Maim or disfigure them such Servants after due proof made shall be sett free from their Service, And have a further allowance and recompence as the Court of Sessions shall judge meet.

But in Case any Servant or Servants shall causelessly Complain against their Master or Dame If they cannot make prooffe of a just occation for such Complaints such Servants shall by the Justices of the Court of Sessions be enjoyned to serve three Months time extraordinary (Gratis) for every such vndue Complaint.

All Servants who have served Diligently; and faithfully to the benifit of their Masters or Dames five or Seaven yeares, shall not be Sent empty away, and if any have proved unfaithful or negligent in their Service, notwithstanding the good usage of their Masters, They shall not be dismiss, till they have made satisfaction according to the Judgment of the Constable and Overseers of the parish where they dwell.

No man Elected into any Military Office, shall refuse to accept thereof, or discharge his trust therein under the penalty of five pounds whereof one half to be paid to the Governour and the other halfe to him that is chosen in his place, and accepts thereof.

No man shall be Compeld to bear Armes or wage war by sea or Land, without the bounds and limits of this Government, But from Defensive warrs noe man shall be exempted.

At a sessions held at the City of New York, Oct. 6, 1694, in the 6th year of William and Mary, present the Mayor, Recorder, Aldermen, and assistants of the Common Council.

For the better preservation of the Lords day, no servile work to be done, or any goods bought or sold on the Lords day, under the penalty of ten shillings for the first offence, and double for every subsequent offence.

The Doors of Publick Houses, to be kept shut, no company to be entertained in them, or any sort of Liquor sold in time of Divine service; Strangers, Travelers, or such as lodge in such Houses excepted; also no person to drink excessively, or be drunk, the penalty 10s. for every offence.

No Negro or Indian servants to meet together, above the number of four, on the Lords Day, or any other day, within the City liberties; nor any slave to go around with Gun, Sword, Club, or any weapon, under penalty of ten lashes at the publick whipping post, or to be redeemed by his master or owner, at six shillings per head.

One of the Constables in the five wards on the south side the fresh Water, by turns to walk the streets of the city, in time of Divine Service, to see these laws observed, and to have power to enter into all publick Houses to put the same in execution.

The Constable to make enquiry after all strangers, and give in their names to the Mayor, or in his absence to the eldest Alderman, no keeper of publick house &c, to entertain or lodge any suspected person, or men or women of evil fame, both these heads under penalty of 10s. for each offence.

No person to keep shop or sell any goods by retail or exercise any handy-craft trade, but such as are Freemen of the City, under penalty of 5s. every offence.

All Jesuits, Seminary Priests, Missionaries, or other Ecclesiastical person, made or ordained by any power or Jurisdiction derived or pretended from the Pope, or see of Rome, residing or being within the Province, to depart the same, on or before the first of Nov. 1700.

If any such continue, remain, or come into the Province, after the said first of November, he shall be deemed an Incendiary, a disturber of the publick peace, an Enemy to the true Christian Religion, and shall suffer perpetual imprisonment.

If any such person, being actually committed, shall break Prison and escape, he shall be guilty of Felony, and if retaken shall die as a Felon.

Persons receiving, harbouring, succouring, or concealing any such person, and knowing him to be such, shall forfeit the sum of 200 pounds, half to the King, for and towards the support of the Government, and the other half to the prosecutor, shall be set in the Pillory three days, and find sureties for their behaviour, at the discretion of the court.

Any Justice of peace may cause any person suspected to be of the Romish Clergy to be apprehended, and if he find cause, may commit him or them, in order to a trial.

Any person, without warrant, may seize, apprehend, and bring before a Magistrate, any person suspected of the crimes above, and the Governor, with the Council, may suitably reward such person as they think fit.

OLD TIME CUSTOMS OF NEW YORK CITY.

The Dutch kept five great festivals of peculiar notoriety, in the year: *Kerstyd* (Christmas); *Nieuwjaar* (New Year); a great day of cake, *Paas* (the Passover); *Pinxter* (i. e. Whitsuntide); and *San Claas* (i. e. Saint Nicholas, or Christ-Kinkle day). The negroes on Long Island on some of those days came in great crowds to Brooklyn, and held their field frolics.

It was the general practice of families in middle life to spin, and make much of their domestic wear at home. Short gowns and petticoats were the general in-door dresses.

Young women who dressed gay to go abroad to visit, or to church, never failed to take off that dress and put on their homemade, as soon as they got home; even on Sunday evenings, when they expected company, or even their beaux, it was their best recommendation to seem thus frugal and ready for any domestic avocation. The boys and young men of a family always changed their dress for a common dress in the same way. There was no custom of offering drink to their guests; when punch was offered, it was in great bowls.

Dutch dances were very common; the supper on such occasions was hot chocolate and bread.

The negroes used to dance in the markets, using tom-toms, horns, etc., for music.

None of the stores or tradesmen's shops then aimed at any rivalry as now. There were no glaring allurements at windows, no over-reaching signs, no big bulk windows; they were content to sell things at honest profits, and to trust to an earned reputation for their share of business.

Many aged persons have spoken to me of the former delightful practice of families sitting out on their "stoops" in the shades of the evening, and their saluting the passing friends, or talking across the narrow streets with neighbors. It was one of the grand links of union in the Knickerbocker social compact. It endeared, and made social neighbors: made intercourse on easy terms; it was only to say, Come, sit down. It helped the young to easy introductions, and made courtships of readier attainment.

I give some facts to illustrate the above remarks, deduced from the family B. with which I am personally acquainted. It shows primitive Dutch manners. His grandfather died at the age of sixty-three, in 1782, holding the office of alderman eleven years, and once chosen mayor and declined. Such a man, in easy circumstances in life, following the true Dutch ton, had all his family to breakfast, all the year round, at daylight. Before the breakfast he universally smoked his pipe. His family always dined at twelve exactly, at that time the kettle was invariably set on the fire for tea, of Bohea, which was always as punctually furnished at three o'clock. Then the old people went abroad on purpose to visit relatives, changing the families each night in succession, over and over again all the year round. The regale at every such house was expected as matter of course to be chocolate supper, and soft waffles.

Afterwards, when green tea came in as a new luxury, loaf sugar also came with it; this was broken in large lumps and laid severally by each cup, and was nibbled or bitten as needed!

The family before referred to actually continued the practice till as late as seventeen years ago, with a steady determination in the patriarch to resist the modern innovation of dissolved sugar while *he* lived.

While they occupied the stoops in the evening, you could see every here and there an old Knickerbocker with his long pipe, fuming away his cares, and ready on any occasion to offer another for the use of any passing friend who would sit down and join him. The ideal picture has every lineament of contented comfort and cheerful repose. Something much more composed and happy than the bustling anxiety of "over business" in the moderns.

The cleanliness of Dutch housewifery was always extreme; everything had to

submit to scrubbing and scouring; dirt in no form could be endured by them; and dear as water was in the city, where it was generally sold, still it was in perpetual requisition. It was their honest pride to see a well-furnished dresser, showing copper and pewter in shining splendor, as if for ornament, rather than for use.

It was common in families then to cleanse their own chimneys without the aid of hired sweeps; and all tradesmen, etc., were accustomed to saw their own fuel. No man in middle circumstances of life ever scrupled to carry home his one cwt. of meal from the market; it would have been *his* shame to have avoided it.

Men wore three-square or cocked hats, and wigs; coats with large cuffs, big skirts lined and stiffened with buckram. None ever saw a crown higher than the head. The coat of a beau had three or four large plaits in the skirts, wadding almost like a coverlet to keep them smooth; cuffs very large, up to the elbows, open below and inclined down, with lead therein; the capes were thin and low, so as readily to expose the close plaited neck-stock of fine linen cambric, and the large silver stock-buckle on the back of the neck; shirts with hand ruffles, sleeves finely plaited, breeches close fitted, with silver, stone, or paste gem buckles; shoes or pumps with silver buckles of various sizes and patterns; thread, worsted, and silk stockings; the poorer class wore sheep and buckskin breeches close set to the limbs. Gold and silver sleeve buttons, set with stones or paste of various colors and kinds, adorned the wrists of the shirts of all classes. The very boys often wore wigs; and their dresses in general were similar to those of the men.

The women wore caps (a bare head was never seen), stiff stays, hoops from six inches to two feet on each side; high heeled shoes of black stuff, with white silk or thread stockings; and in the miry times of the winter they wore clogs, gala shoes, or pattens.

As soon as wigs were abandoned, and the natural hair was cherished, it became the mode to dress it by plaiting it, by queuing and clubbing, or by wearing it in a black silk sack or bag, adorned with a large black rose.

In time, the powder with which wigs and the natural hair had been severally adorned, was run into disrepute (about 28 or 30 years ago) by the then strange innovation of "Brutus heads;" not only then discarding the long-cherished powder and perfume, and tortured frizzle-work, but also literally becoming "round heads" by cropping off all the pendent graces of ties, bobs, clubs, queues, etc. The hardy beaux who first encountered public opinion by appearing abroad unpowdered and cropt, had many starers. The old men, for a time, obstinately persisted in adherence to the old regime; but death thinned their ranks, and use and prevalence of numbers at length gave countenance to modern usage.

From various reminiscents, we glean that laced ruffles, depending over the hand, was a mark of indispensable gentility. The coat and breeches were generally desirable of the same material—of "broadcloth" for winter, and of silk camlet for summer. No kind of cotton fabrics were then in use, or known. Hose were, therefore, of thread or silk in summer, and fine worsted in winter; shoes were square-toed, and were often "double channelled." To these succeeded sharp-toes, as piked as possible. When wigs were universally worn, grey wigs were powdered; and for that purpose sent in a wooden box frequently to the barber to be dressed on his block-head. But "brown wigs," so-called, were exempted from the white disguise. Coats of red cloth, even by boys, were considerably worn; and plush breeches, and plush vests of various colors, shining and smooth, were in common use. Everlasting, made of worsted, was a fabric

of great use for breeches, and sometimes for vests. The vest had great depending pocket flaps, and the breeches were short above the stride, because the art, since devised, of suspending them by suspenders, was then unknown. It was then the test and even the pride of a well formed man, that he could by his natural form readily keep his breeches above his hips, and his stockings, without gartering, above the calf of his leg. With the queues belonged frizzled side-locks and *tout pies*, formed of the natural hair, or, in defect of a long tie, a splice was added to it. Such was the general passion for the longest possible whip of hair, that sailors and boatmen, to make it grow most, used to tie theirs in eel skins. Nothing like surtouts were known; but they had coating or cloth great-coats, or blue cloth and brown camlet cloaks, with green baize lining to the latter. In the time of the American war, many of the American officers introduced the use of Dutch blankets for great-coats. The sailors used to wear hats of glazed leather, or woollen thrums, called chapeaus; and their "small clothes," as we now call them, were immensely wide "petticoat-breeches." The workingmen in the country wore the same form, having no falling-flaps, but slits in front; and they were so full in girth, that they ordinarily changed the rear to the front, when the seat became prematurely worn out. At the same time numerous workingmen and boys, and all tradesmen, wore leather breeches and leather aprons.

Some of the peculiarities of the female dress were these, to wit: Ancient ladies are still alive, who often had their hair tortured for hours at a sitting, in getting up for a dress occasion, the proper crisped curls of a hair curler. This formidable outfit of head-work was next succeeded by "rollers," over which the hair was combed above the forehead. These were again superseded by "cushions" and artificial curled work, which could be sent to the barber's block, like a wig, "to be dressed," leaving the lady at home to pursue other objects.

When the ladies first began to lay off their cumbrous hoops, they supplied their place with successive substitutes, such as these, to wit: first came "bishops," a thing stuffed or padded with horsehair; then succeeded a smaller affair, under the name of *Oue de Paris*, also padded with horsehair.

Among other articles of female wear, we may name the following, to wit: Once they wore a "skimmer-hat," made of a fabric which shone like silver tinsel; it was of a very small flat crown and big brim, not unlike the present Leghorn flats. Another hat, not unlike it in shape, was made of woven horsehair, wove in flowers, and called "horsehair bonnets," an article which might be again usefully introduced for children's wear, as an enduring hat for long service. I have seen what was called a *bath-bonnet*, made of black satin, and so constructed to lay in folds that it could be set upon, like a chapeau bras; a good article now for travelling ladies. The "muskmelon-bonnet," used before the Revolution, had numerous whalebone stiffeners in the crown, set an inch apart, in parallel lines, and presenting ridges to the eye between the bones. The next bonnet was the "whalebone-bonnet," having only the bones in the front as stiffeners. A "calash-bonnet" was always formed of green silk; it was worn abroad, covering the head, but when in rooms it could fall back in folds like the springs of a calash or gig-top; to keep it over the head, it was drawn up by a cord always held in the hand of the wearer. The "wagon-bonnet," always of black silk, was an article exclusively in use among the Friends, and was deemed to look, on the head, not unlike the top of the "Jersey wagons," and having a pendent piece of like silk hanging from the bonnet and covering the shoulders. The only straw wear was that called the "straw Cheshire bonnet," worn generally by old people.

The ladies once wore "hollow-breasted stays," which were exploded as injurious to the health. Then came the use of *straight stays*. Even little girls wore such stays. At one time the gowns worn had no fronts; the design was to display a finely quilted Marseilles, silk, or satin petticoat, and a worked stomacher on the waist. In other dresses, a white apron was the mode; all wore large pockets under their gowns. Among the caps was the "queen's nightcap," the same always worn by Lady Washington. The "cushion head-dress" was of gauze, stiffened out in cylindrical form, with white spiral wire. The border of the cap was called the balcony.

Formerly there were no sideboards, and when they were first introduced after the Revolution, they were much smaller and less expensive than now. Formerly they had concies of worsted damask, and only in very affluent families, in lieu of what we call sofas, or lounges. Plain people used settees and settles,—the latter had a bed concealed in the seat, and by folding the top of it outwards to the front, it exposed the bed, and widened the place for the bed to be spread upon it.

In those days, there were no Windsor chairs: and fancy chairs are still more modern. Their chairs of the genteel kind were of mahogany or red walnut (once a great substitute for mahogany in all kinds of furniture, tables, etc.), or else they were of rush bottom, and made of maple posts and slats, with high backs and perpendicular. Instead of japanned waiters as now, they had mahogany tea boards, and round tea tables, which, being turned on an axle underneath the centre, stood upright, like an expanded fan or palm-leaf, in the corner. Another corner was occupied by a beaufet, which was a corner closet with a glass door, in which all the china of the family was intended to be displayed, for ornament as well as use. A conspicuous article in the collection was always a great china punchbowl, which furnished a frequent and grateful beverage,—for wine drinking was then much less in vogue. China teacups and saucers were then about half their present size; and china teapots and coffeepots, with silver nozzles, was a mark of superior finery. The sham of plated ware was not then known, and all who showed a silver surface had the massive metal too. This occurred in the wealthy families, in little coffee and teapots; and a silver tankard, for good sugared toddy, was above vulgar entertainment. Where we now use earthenware, they then used delfware, imported from England; and instead of queensware (then unknown), pewter platters and porringers, made to shine along a "dresser," were universal. Some, and especially the country people, ate their meals from wooden trenchers. Gilded looking-glasses and picture frames of golden glare were unknown; and both, much smaller than now, were used. Small pictures painted on glass, with black mouldings for frames, with a scanty touch of gold leaf in the corners, was the adornment of a parlor. The looking-glasses in two plates, if large, had either glass frames figured with flowers engraved thereon, or were of scalloped mahogany—painted white or black, with here and there some touches of gold. Every householder in that day deemed it essential to his convenience and comfort to have an ample chest of drawers, in his parlor or sitting-room, in which the linen and clothes of the family were always of ready access. It was no sin to rummage them before company. These drawers were sometimes nearly as high as the ceiling. At other times they had a writing desk about the centre, with a falling lid to write upon when let down. A great high clock case, reaching to the ceiling, occupied another corner; and a fourth corner was appropriated to the chimney place.

They then had no carpets on their floors, and no paper on their walls. The silver sand on the floor was drawn into a variety of fanciful figures and twirls of the sweeping-brush, and much skill and even pride was displayed therein in the devices and arrangement. They had then no argand or other lamps in parlors, but dipt candles, in brass or copper candlesticks, was usually good enough for common use; and those who occasionally used mould candles, made them at home in little tin frames, casting four to six candles in each. A glass lantern with square sides furnished the entry lights in the houses of the affluent. Bedsteads then were made, if fine, of carved mahogany, of slender dimensions; but, for common purposes, or for the families of good tradesmen, they were of poplar, and always painted green. It was a matter of universal concern to have them low enough to answer the purpose of repose for sick or dying persons—a provision so necessary for such possible events, now so little regarded by the modern practice of ascending to a bed by steps, like clambering up to a haymow.

A lady, giving me the reminiscences of her early life, thus speaks of things as they were before the war of Independence: Marble mantels and folding doors were not then known; and well enough we enjoyed ourselves without sofas, carpets, or girandoles. A white floor sprinkled with clean white sand, large tables and heavy high-back chairs of walnut or mahogany, decorated a parlor genteelly enough for anybody. Sometimes a carpet, not, however, covering the whole floor, was seen upon the dining room. This was a show parlor up stairs, not used but upon gala occasions, and then not to dine in. Pewter plates and dishes were in general use. China on dinner tables was a great rarity. Plate, more or less, was seen in most families of easy circumstances, not indeed in all the various shapes that have since been invented, but in massive silver waiters, bowls, tankards, cans, etc. Glass tumblers were scarcely seen. Punch, the most common beverage, was drunk by the company from one large bowl of silver or china; and beer from a tankard of silver.

The use of stoves was not known in primitive times, neither in families nor churches. Their fireplaces were as large again as the present, with much plainer mantel pieces. In lieu of marble plates around the sides and top of the fireplaces, it was adorned with china Dutch tile, pictured with sundry Scripture pieces. Dr. Franklin first invented the "open stove," called also the "Franklin stove," after which, as fuel became scarce, the better economy of the "ten plate stove" was adopted.

The most splendid looking carriage ever exhibited among us was that used, as befitting the character of that chief of men, General Washington, while acting as President of the United States. It was very large, so as to make four horses, at least, an almost necessary appendage. It was occasionally drawn by six horses, Virginia bays. It was cream colored, globular in its shape, ornamented with cupids, supporting festoons, and wreaths of flowers, emblematically arranged along the panel work;—the whole neatly covered with best watch glass. It was of English construction.

Some twenty or thirty years before the period of the Revolution, the steeds most prized for the saddle were *pacers*, since so odious deemed. To this end the breed was propagated with much care. The Narraganset pacers of Rhode Island were in such repute that they were sent for, at much trouble and expense, by some few who were choice in their selections. It may amuse the present generation to peruse the history of one such horse, spoken of in the letter of Rip Van Dam of New York, in the year 1711, which I have seen. It states the fact of the

trouble he had taken to procure him such a horse. He was shipped from Rhode Island in a sloop, from which he jumped overboard, when under sail, and swam ashore to his former home. He arrived at New York in 14 days' passage, much reduced in flesh and spirit. He cost £32, and his freight 50 shillings. This writer, Rip Van Dam, was a great personage, he having been President of the Council in 1731; and on the death of Governor Montgomery, that year, he was Governor, *ex-officio*, of New York. His mural monument is now to be seen in St. Paul's Church.*

THE NEGRO PLOT IN NEW YORK.

A robbery, which had been committed at the house of Robert Hogg, a merchant in New York, on the 28th of February, 1740-1, seemed to have led to the discovery of a plot, which was afterwards called *the negro plot*. One Mary Burton, an indentured servant to John Hughson (a man of infamous character, and to whose house slaves were in the practice of resorting to drink and gamble, and of secreting the goods they had stolen), was the instrument, in the hands of the magistrates, for the detection and punishment of the offenders. On the 18th of March, after the robbery, a fire broke out in the roof of His Majesty's house at Fort George, near the chapel, consuming the house, the chapel, and some other buildings adjacent. Most of the public records in the secretary's office, over the fort gate, were fortunately rescued from the flames. A week after, another fire broke out at the house belonging to a Captain Warren, near the long bridge, at the southwest end of the city. Both these fires were, at first, supposed to be accidental. But about a week after the last fire, another broke out at the store house of a Mr. Van Zandt, towards the east end of the town. Three days after, a fourth alarm was given, and it was found that some hay was on fire in a cow-stable near the house of a Mr. Quick, or a Mr. Vergereau. The fire was soon suppressed. The people, in returning from that fire, were alarmed by a fifth cry, at the house of one Ben Thompson, next door west of a Captain Sarly's house. It appeared that fire had been placed between two beds, in the loft of a kitchen, where a negro usually slept. The next morning coals were discovered under a haystack, near the coach house and stables of Joseph Murray, Esq., in Broadway. All these circumstances having occurred in quick succession, the people were induced to believe that some designing persons intended to destroy the city by fire. What strengthened this belief was, a seventh alarm of fire the next day, at the house of a Sergeant Burns, opposite the fort garden, an eighth alarm, occasioned by a fire breaking out the same day, in the roof of a Mr. Hilton's house, near the fly market; and again, the same afternoon, and within a few hours after, a ninth fire occurring at Colonel Philipse's store house. This strange coincidence of events leaves indeed little room for doubt that some one or more of the fires occurred through design. It was soon rumored that *the negroes* were the perpetrators. One *Quacko*, a negro belonging to a Mr. Walter, was said to have made use of some mysterious language and threats, indicating his knowledge of a plot. A proclamation was issued, offering rewards for the discovery of the offenders. Quacko and several other negroes were apprehended and closely interrogated, but without effect. The Supreme Court, at its April term, strictly enjoined the grand jury to make diligent enquiries as to the late robberies and fires within the

* Watson's Historic Tales of Olden Time.

city. Mary Burton, who had been apprehended as a witness, relative to the robbery at Mr. Hogg's, gave the grand jury reason to believe that she was also privy to the design to set fire to the city. After some difficulty, she made a disclosure, which, in all probability, was greatly exaggerated, though some of its parts might have been true. She stated that meetings of negroes were held at her master's (Hughson). That their plan was to burn the fort and city. That one Cæsar (a black) was to be *Governor*, and Hughson, her master, *king*! That they were to destroy the whites. That she had known *seven or eight* guns, and *some swords*, in her master's house. That the meetings at her master's house consisted of twenty or thirty negroes at a time. Upon this evidence, warrants were issued, and many negroes committed to prison. One Arthur Price, a servant, charged with stealing goods belonging to the Lieutenant-Governor, likewise became informer. Being in prison himself, and having access to the negroes there committed, he received, or pretended to have received, much information from them. He was afterwards employed by the magistrates, to hold private conferences with the negroes in prison, and to use persuasion and other means to gain confessions from them. In this business he was peculiarly expert, and received the most unqualified approbation of the magistrates. Yet many of his stories are of such a chivalrous and romantic description as to excite suspicion of their truth. But everything he related was implicitly believed. The more extravagant the tale, the more readily was it received and credited. A white woman, who was a common prostitute, and familiar even with negroes, of the name of Margaret or Peggy Salinburgh, *alias* Kerry, *alias* Sorubiero, likewise declared she could make great discoveries. The magistrates eagerly hastened to take her examination, and the consequence was, that fresh warrants were issued for the apprehension of many other negroes, not before implicated. Informers were now rapidly increasing. Arthur Price, while in prison, was making great discoveries. Operating on the fears and hopes of the negroes, many declared themselves accomplices. The magistrates were unceasingly engaged. The grand jury were daily presenting bills of indictment against the parties accused. To be inculpated by Mary Burton, Arthur Price, or Peggy Salinburgh, was sufficient to authorize the indictment and conviction of any person. It is to be regretted that on proof of such suspicious characters so many lives were placed in the hands of the executioner. Not that we dispute the fact that some of the fires were designedly set, but that we mean to be understood as doubting the extent and nature of the plot ascribed to the negroes. It is evident that Mary Burton was wholly unworthy of credit. Independent of the absurdity and improbability of many of her stories, she had, on the 22d April, in her first examination and disclosure under oath, declared, "that she never saw any white person in company when they talked of burning the town, but her master, her mistress, and Peggy;" yet, on the 25th of June following, she deposed that one John Ury, a Catholic priest (a *white person*), was often at her master's, and "that when he came to Hughson's, he (Ury) always went up stairs in the company of Hughson, his wife and daughter, and Peggy, with whom the negroes used to be, at the same time, consulting about the plot;" and that "the negroes talked in the presence of the said Ury about setting fire to the houses and killing the white people." She afterwards, on the 14th July following, declared, on oath, that one Corry, a dancing master (also a *white person*), used to come to Hughson's and talk with the negroes about the plot. Yet, on evidence of this kind, Ury, who had previously been committed, under the act against Jesuits and Popish priests, was indicted,

tried, convicted, and executed. At the place of execution, he solemnly denied the charge, and called on God to witness its falsity. But Ury was a Catholic, and the public prejudice was so strong that it required very little more to ensure his condemnation. Had not Ury been obnoxious, on account of his religion, the accusation against him would perhaps never have been made, or, if made, would have been little regarded. Mary Burton received the hundred pounds which had been promised as a reward for discovering the persons concerned in setting fire to the city. We shall now dismiss this article, after giving the number who were accused, tried, and suffered on this occasion, with some remarks, which grow out of this subject.

One hundred and fifty-four negroes were committed to prison, of whom 14 were burnt at the stake, 18 hanged, 71 transported, and the rest pardoned, or discharged for want of proof. Twenty white persons were committed, of whom 2 only, John Hughson and John Ury, were executed. At this time the city of New York contained a population of about 12,000 souls, of whom one-sixth were slaves. If a plot, in fact, existed for the destruction of the city and the massacre of its inhabitants; and if that plot was conducted by Ury, it certainly betrayed greater imbecility of intellect, and want of caution and arrangement, together with less union of action, than could have been expected from one who was evidently, if we believe his own account, a man of classical education, and profound erudition. It is worthy of remark, that Corry, the dancing master, accused by Mary Burton, was discharged for want of proof. It seems that Mary's testimony began, at length, to be doubted. Indeed, it well might; for had the prosecutions continued much longer, she would, more than probable, have accused a great portion of the white citizens of New York, as being concerned in this plot. Daniel Horsmanden, Esq., published, at the time, a history of this conspiracy, and labored hard to prove its existence and extent. But it is evident that that hostility to Catholicism, which the British Government so industriously inculcated, tintured his mind, and gave it a bias unfriendly to the fair development of truth, or to the full and impartial examination of facts and circumstances. The negroes were without defence. All the counsel in the city were arrayed against them, and volunteered their services on behalf of the crown, on the trial of those unfortunate slaves. The want of education, and utter ignorance of those infatuated wretches, easily made them the victims of craft and imposition. The hopes of life, and the promise of pardon, influenced some of them to make confessions. Yet falsehood was so ingeniously and artfully blended with truth, that it was not an easy task to separate the one from the other. It must, however, be admitted, that many circumstances aided the opinion that the plot, in fact, existed, and if the people were mistaken in this, it was an error into which they might naturally fall at the moment of confusion and distress, and under the attending circumstances. A day of public thanksgiving for the deliverance of His Majesty's subjects from the alleged conspiracy, was appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor, and was devoutly and reverently observed by the inhabitants.—*Smith's History.*

HOW ROCHESTER WAS SAVED FROM THE BRITISH.

In the spring of 1814—the war between the United States and Great Britain being in progress—Sir James Yeo, with a fleet of 13 vessels, appeared off the mouth of the Genesee, threatening the destruction of the rude improvements in

and around Rochester. Messengers were despatched to arouse the people in the surrounding country, for defence against the threatened attack.

At this time there were but *thirty-three* people in Rochester capable of bearing arms. This little band threw up a breastwork called Fort Bender, near the Deep Hollow, beside the Lower Falls, and hurried down to the junction of the Genesee and Lake Ontario, 5 miles north of the present city limits, where the enemy threatened to land; leaving behind them two old men, with some young lads, to remove the women and children into the woods, in case the British should attempt to land for the capture of the provisions, and destruction of the bridge at Rochester, etc. Francis Brown and Elisha Ely acted as captains, and Isaac W. Stone as major, of the Rochester forces, which were strengthened by the additions that could be made from this thinly settled region. Though the equipments and discipline of these troops would not form a brilliant picture for a warlike eye, their very awkwardness in those points, coupled as it was with their sagacity and courage, accomplished more, perhaps, than could have been effected by a larger force of regular troops, bedizzened with the trappings of military pomp. The militia thus hastily collected were marched and countermarched, disappearing in the woods at one point, and suddenly emerging elsewhere, so as to impress the enemy with the belief that the force collected for defence was far greater than it actually was. (The circumstances here related are substantially as mentioned to the writer by one who was then and is now a resident of Rochester.) An officer with a flag of truce was sent from the British fleet. A militia officer marched down with ten of the most soldierlike men to receive him on Lighthouse Point. These militia men carried their guns upright, as might be consistent with their plan of being ready for action by keeping hold of the triggers. The British officer was astonished: he "looked unutterable things." "Sir," said he, "do you receive a flag of truce under arms, with cocked triggers?"—"Excuse me, excuse me, sir: we backwoodsmen are not well versed in military tactics," replied the American officer, who promptly sought to rectify his error by ordering his men to "ground arms." The Briton was still more astonished; and, after delivering a brief message, immediately departed for the fleet, indicating by his countenance a suspicion that the ignorance of tactics, which he had witnessed, was all feigned for the occasion, so as to deceive the British Commodore into a snare. Shortly afterwards, on the same day, another officer came ashore with a flag of truce for farther parley, as the British were evidently too suspicious of stratagem to attempt a hostile landing, if there was any possibility of compromising for the spoils. Captain Francis Brown was deputed with a guard to receive the last flag of truce. The British officer looked suspiciously upon him and upon his guard; and, after some conversation, familiarly grasped the pantaloons of Captain Brown about the knee, remarking, as he firmly handled it, "Your cloth is too good to be spoiled by such a bungling tailor," alluding to the width and clumsy aspect of that garment. Brown was quick-witted, as well as resolute, and replied, jocosely, that he was prevented from dressing fashionably by his haste that morning, to salute such distinguished visitors. The Briton obviously imagined that Brown was a regular officer of the American army, whose regimentals were masked by clumsy over clothes. The proposition was then made, that, if the Americans would deliver up the provisions and military stores, which might be in and around Rochester, or Charlotte, Sir James Yeo would spare the settlements from destruction. "Will you comply with the offer?"—"Blood knee deep first," was the emphatic reply of Francis Brown.

While this parley was in progress, an American officer, with his staff, returning from the Niagara frontier, was accidentally seen passing from one wooded point to another; and this, with other circumstances, afforded to the British "confirmation strong" that their suspicions were well founded; that there was a considerable American army collected; and that the Yankee officers pretended ignorance for the purpose of entrapping ashore the Commodore and his forces. The return of the last flag to the fleet was followed by a vigorous attack in bombs and balls, while the compliment was spiritedly returned, not without some effect on at least one of the vessels, by a rusty old six-pounder, which had been furnished and mounted on a log for the important occasion. After a few hours spent in this unavailing manner, Admiral Yeo ran down to Pultneyville, about 20 miles eastward of Genesee River, where, on learning how they had been outwitted and deterred from landing by such a handful of militia, their mortification could scarcely restrain all hands from a hearty laugh at the "Yankee trick."

NEW JERSEY.

Area,	7,576 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	672,635
Population in 1870,	906,096

THE State of New Jersey was one of the original colonies which formed the American Union. It is situated between $38^{\circ} 56'$ and $41^{\circ} 21'$ N. latitude, and between 74° and $75^{\circ} 33'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by New York, on the east by New York (from which the Hudson River separates it) and the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by Delaware Bay, and on the west by the States of Pennsylvania and Delaware, from which it is separated by the Delaware River.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The southern and middle parts of the State are generally low, flat, and sandy, especially along the coast and for some distance inland. The northern part is rugged and mountainous. Schooley's, Trowbridge, Ramapo, and Second mountains in the northeast part are ridges of the Alleghany range, making their way across the State from Pennsylvania into New York. The Blue Mountains cross the extreme northwestern part of the State, running parallel with the Delaware River at this point. Southeast of Raritan Bay, there is a range of high hills, extending for a short distance along the coast, called the Nevesink Highlands. They are crowned with a lighthouse and signal station, and are the first land seen by vessels entering the port of New York, and the last on leaving it.

Along the Atlantic coast, the shores are cut up with numerous inlets, into some of which flow the principal rivers of the State. Some of these furnish excellent harbors. Raritan Bay, in the northeast part, lies opposite the harbor of New York, and possesses many ad-

vantages for commerce over the waters of the Great Metropolis. Newark Bay is connected with it by Staten Island Sound, and is really little more than a broad estuary by which the Passaic River finds its way to the sea. It also receives the waters of the Hackensack River.

The *Delaware River and Bay* wash the entire western side of the State. The river rises on the western slope of the Catskill Mountains, in New York. It at first consists of two branches, which unite near Hancock, in Delaware county, on the southwest border of the State. Flowing southeast, it forms the boundary between New York and Pennsylvania as far as the northwest corner of New Jersey, where its course is inflected to the southwest by the Kittatinny (or Shawangunk) Mountain. It pursues this course to near the 41st parallel of N. latitude, when it breaks through the Blue Mountains by the famous Delaware Water Gap, and flows southward. The "Gap" is one of the most celebrated places in the country. It lies in the State of Pennsylvania, but for convenience is mentioned here. The cliffs rise up perpendicularly from 1000 to 1200 feet high, and the river rushes through it in grand style. It is much visited by tourists. The river flows southward until it passes Easton, Pa., when it turns again to the southeast, which course it pursues to its mouth. Its current is broken by a succession of Rapids at Trenton, but below this city it is smooth and deep. The river is 300 miles long, and is navigable for ships of the line to Philadelphia, about 40 miles from its entrance into Delaware Bay. Steamboats ascend to Trenton. A canal has been constructed from Bristol, below Trenton, to Easton, Pa., along the west side of the river. A heavy trade is carried on by means of it. The Delaware is bridged in several places along its upper course, commencing at Trenton. A canal, extending from Trenton to New Brunswick, connects it with the waters of the Raritan River and New York Bay.

Philadelphia and Easton, on the right bank, and Trenton, Burlington, and Camden, on the left bank, are the principal towns on the river.

The Hudson River washes part of the eastern shore of the State. The other streams are the Raritan, rising in Morris county, and flowing into Raritan Bay, navigable to New Brunswick; the Passaic, rising in Morris county, and flowing into Newark Bay, navigable to Newark; and the Hackensack, which rises in Bergen county, and flows into Newark Bay. The Passaic has a perpendicular fall of 50 feet, at Paterson. A number of small streams flow into the inlets on the east coast.

Cape May, on the extreme southeastern side of Delaware Bay, is one of the most fashionable watering places in America. *Long Branch*, on the Atlantic coast, near New York, is another fashionable resort, and ranks next to Newport in the list of sea-shore resorts. There are several others on the Atlantic coast.

The scenery of the State is very beautiful in many places, and very dreary in others. The Falls of the Passaic are noted for their beauty when the stream is full; and the mountainous region of the north, especially the country along the upper Delaware, is wild and picturesque. The Nevesink Highlands command a fine view of the ocean, and of Raritan and New York bays. The country northwest of New York is finely cultivated, and is well built up with numerous pretty towns and villages.

MINERALS.

Central and southern New Jersey contain immense beds of marl, which is now growing in favor as a fertilizer. The changes in the agriculture of the State, caused by the introduction and general use of this cheap manure, are almost marvellous. These deposits seem to be inexhaustible, and for the most part lie very near the surface of the ground. Bog ore is found in the southern counties, and hematite and magnetic ores in the hilly regions of the north. Marble, limestone, slate, beds of peat, copperas, and a fine sand used in making glass are found. In Sussex county are situated the most valuable zinc mines in the Union.

CLIMATE.

The climate of the northern and northwestern parts of the State is severe. In the eastern and southern the winters are milder. The summers are hot and dry, but the spring comes early, and is pleasant. The southern and eastern parts are, to a great extent, marshy, and covered with rank, coarse vegetation. Agues and fever prevail along almost the entire water line of the State, and in many of the interior districts. The northern and northwestern portions are healthy.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

Along the sea coast, and in some of the interior regions, the soil consists of a fine white sand, and is worthless for agriculture. The hilly region of the north is devoted to dairy farming and grazing. The soil of the greater portion of the State is light and sandy, and was for



GATHERING WATERMELONS.

a long time esteemed too poor to justify cultivation, but the liberal and judicious use of fertilizers has brought it to a high, and even remarkable state of fertility. Lying so near the great cities of New York and Philadelphia, unusual advantages are offered the farmers of this State for the rapid sale of their crops, and as a consequence they are largely engaged in market-gardening.

In 1869, there were 1,944,441 acres of improved, and 1,039,086 acres of unimproved land in the State. The remainder of the agricultural wealth of New Jersey, for the same year, is given as follows:

Cash value of farms (estimated),	\$250,000,000
Value of farming implements and machinery (estimated),	\$7,000,000
Number of horses,	85,460
“ asses and mules,	6,960
“ milch cows,	149,450
“ young cattle,	99,450
“ sheep,	140,160
“ swine,	300,540
Value of domestic animals,	\$19,134,693
Bushels of wheat,	1,646,000

Bushels of rye,	1,500,000
“ Indian corn,	9,200,000
“ oats,	6,440,000
“ potatoes,	5,300,000
“ barley,	26,000
“ buckwheat,	800,000
Pounds of butter,	10,714,447
“ cheese,	182,172
“ flax,	48,651
“ beeswax and honey,	194,055
Gallons of wine,	22,000
Tons of hay,	525,000
Value of orchard products (about),	\$1,000,000
“ market garden products (about), . .	\$2,000,000
“ slaughtered animals (about), . . .	\$5,000,000

COMMERCE.

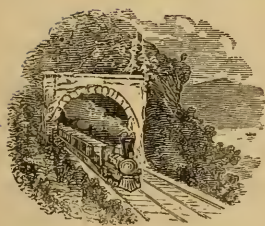
Though admirably situated for commerce, it is the misfortune of New Jersey to lie just between the great ports of New York and Philadelphia, which of course manage her commerce for her. This situation, however, throws an enormous internal transit trade into her hands, and has given to her railroads and steamboat communications an importance they would not otherwise have attained. Some idea of this may be gained from the following statistics. In 1867, the Camden and Amboy Railroad and Transportation Company carried over their road, 539,688 tons of freight, and 40,667 tons of coal. The Delaware and Raritan Canal in the same year transported 1,838,968 tons of coal, 2,636,738 cubic feet of timber, 20,348,288 feet of lumber, 2,605,012 bushels of grain and feed, 55,630 tons of iron, and 365,751 tons of merchandise. In 1861, the total value of the exports of this State was \$46,067, and of the imports \$5510. In 1863, the imports were valued at \$3616, and the exports at \$56,192. In 1863, the tonnage owned in the State was 138,046 tons.

MANUFACTURES.

The water power of the State is excellent, and the manufactures are extensive. In 1870 there were 6636 establishments in New Jersey, devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts, employing 75,552 hands, and a capital of \$79,606,719, consuming raw material worth \$103,415,245, and yielding an annual product of \$169,237,732. The following is a list of the principal manufactures of the State in 1870:

Value of cotton goods,	\$4,078,768
“ woollen goods,	1,896,825
“ leather,	9,307,948
“ pig iron,	1,546,965
“ rolled iron,	5,297,898
“ steam engines and machinery,	8,818,123
“ agricultural implements,	633,875
“ sawed and planed lumber,	3,330,769
“ flour,	12,593,148
“ malt and spirituous liquors,	3,675,208
“ boots and shoes,	3,639,076
“ jewelry, silverware, etc.,	3,422,109

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.



THE BERGEN TUNNEL.

This State is amply provided with railroad communication. Four great lines, the New Jersey, Erie, Central New Jersey, and Morris and Essex, afford direct and unbroken transportation to all parts of the West, and the Camden and Amboy extends across the State, from New York to Philadelphia. Five main

routes centre in Jersey City, opposite New York, and four in Camden, opposite Philadelphia. In 1872, there were 1265 miles of completed railroads in the State.

Two canals, having an aggregate length of 147 miles, extend across the State, one from Bordentown (through Trenton) to New Brunswick, affording steam transportation between the Delaware and Raritan rivers, and the other extending from Jersey City and Newark to Easton, Pennsylvania.

EDUCATION.

The educational system of New Jersey is controlled by a State Superintendent and Board of Education, the latter consisting of 17 persons, who are appointed for two years. Each county is in charge of a County Superintendent, who has immediate charge of its schools.

There is a Normal School at Trenton, and a Normal Preparatory School at Beverly, both in flourishing condition. There is a permanent School Fund amounting to \$557,115. In 1870, the State expended the sum of \$1,562,573 on its schools. The number of children in the State, between the ages of five and eighteen years, in 1870, was 258,-

227. Of these, 161,683 attended the public schools, and 32,447 attended private schools, making a total of 194,130 children receiving instruction. A number of private schools, and several academies are in successful operation in the State.

The College of New Jersey, at Princeton, is the oldest in the State, having been established in 1746. It is in a flourishing condition, and is justly regarded as one of the principal educational establishments of the Union. *Rutger's College*, at New Brunswick, is also a flourishing institution. Connected with it is the *State Agricultural College*, which is in prosperous operation. The instruction is by the example of the college farm, and the lectures of the Professor of Agriculture, delivered in all the counties of the State. There are several other colleges and theological seminaries in the State.

In 1870, there 2413 libraries in New Jersey, containing 895,291 volumes. Of these about 1300, containing over 300,000 volumes, are public.

In the same year, there were published in the State 20 daily, 1 semi-weekly, 95 weekly and 7 monthly newspapers and magazines. Of these, 105 were political, 2 religious, 10 literary and miscellaneous, making a total of 117, with an aggregate annual circulation of 18,625,740 copies.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The State Prison, at Trenton, is overcrowded, and is in great need of more extensive buildings. The labor of the convicts is let out to contractors. The separate and silent systems are not in force in this institution, to the injury of its discipline. A library is provided for the prisoners. On the 1st of January, 1868, there were about 550 convicts confined here, or nearly 200 more than the prison was designed to accommodate.

The State Lunatic Asylum, at Trenton, is a flourishing institution, with 450 patients on the 1st of November, 1867. The State also maintains a flourishing *Reform School*, at Jamesburg, a *Home for Disabled Soldiers*, at Newark, and a *Home for Soldiers' Children*, at Trenton, and makes a liberal provision for its deaf, dumb, and blind, in the establishments of Philadelphia and Hartford.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, the total value of church property in the State was \$18,347,150. The number of churches was 1384.

FINANCES.

The State debt is due entirely on account of the late war, and amounts to \$2,500,000. Deducting assets it is \$1,200,000. The receipts of the Treasury for eleven months of 1874 were \$3,538,126, and the expenditures \$3,265,266, leaving a balance on hand of \$72,860.

In 1868, there were 54 national banks, with an aggregate paid in capital of \$11,583,450.

GOVERNMENT.

The Constitution of this State was adopted in 1844. By its terms, every white male citizen of the United States, 21 years old, having resided in the State one year and in the county five months, is entitled to vote at the elections.

The Government is confided to a Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Comptroller, Attorney-General, and a Legislature, consisting of a Senate (of 21 members), and a House of Representatives (of 60 members). The Governor is elected by the people for the term of three years. The Senators are elected for three years, one-third every year; and the Representatives annually for one year. The Secretary of State holds office for five years, is appointed by the Governor by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. The State Treasurer is elected by the Legislature, on joint ballot, and holds office for one year.

The Court of Chancery is held by the Chancellor.

The Supreme Court is composed of a Chief Justice and six Associate Justices. The members of this court and the Chancellor are appointed by the Governor, confirmed by the Senate, and hold office for seven years.

The Court of Errors and Appeals consists of the Chancellor, the Judges of the Supreme Court, and six other judges (appointed and confirmed in the manner stated above, for a period of six years, one judge going out of office each year). The State is divided into seven districts. A Judge of the Supreme Court is assigned to each one of these, and holds in his district courts of Oyer and Terminer three times a year in each county. He is also *ex-officio* judge of the court of Common Pleas, Orphans Court, and Court of Quarter Sessions in his district.

For purposes of government, the State is divided into 21 counties. The seat of Government is located at Trenton.

HISTORY.

New Jersey was settled by the Dutch, soon after their arrival in New Amsterdam. They established a colony at Bergen, between the years 1617 and 1620. In 1630, they built a small fort on the Delaware, below the present city of Philadelphia. In 1634, a company of English settlers, under the authority of a patent from their king, settled on the shores of the lower Delaware; and in 1638, the same region was colonized by a party of Swedes and Finns. The Dutch and Swedes drove out the English settlers, and in 1655, the Swedes, themselves, were driven out by the Dutch, and nearly all sent back to Europe. When the province of New York was seized by the English, New Jersey went with it. Soon after this, Elizabethtown, Newark, Middletown, and Shrewsbury were founded. A little later, and the district was purchased from the Duke of York, by Sir George Carteret and Lord Berkeley, and erected into a separate province with its present name. The seat of government was established at Elizabeth, and some little difficulty was experienced in inducing the inhabitants to submit to the new authorities. The province suffered considerably from the despotic rule of Sir Edmund Andros.

For some time, the government of the province was a condition of semi-anarchy, owing to the refusal of the home Government to recognize the claims of the proprietors. This dispute was complicated by the claim of Pennsylvania to the southern part of the State. It was settled in 1702, by the proprietors surrendering the right of government to the Crown. The provinces of New York and New Jersey were allowed separate Assemblies, but were both placed by Queen Anne under one Governor. In 1708, New Jersey protested against this arrangement, and was given a separate Governor, in the person of Lewis Morris.

The colony suffered very little from the Indians, but bore its share in the wars with the French. It gave a hearty support, and played a conspicuous part in the great Revolution. During this war, the battles of Trenton, Princeton, Millstone, Red Bank, and Monmouth, were fought in this State, whose territory was more or less occupied by the two armies during the greater part of the war.

The first State Constitution was adopted in 1776. On the 18th of December, 1787, the Constitution of the United States was ratified by New Jersey; and in 1790, the seat of government for the State was established at Trenton.

During the late war, New Jersey contributed a force of 79,348 men to the service of the Union.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

The principal cities and towns are, Trenton, the capital of the State, Newark, Jersey City, Paterson, Elizabeth, Camden, New Brunswick, Orange, Morristown, Rahway, Burlington, Hackensack, Bridgeton, Bloomfield, Middletown, and Bordentown.

TRENTON,

The capital, and fourth city of the State, is situated on the left bank of the Delaware River, in Mercer county, at the head of steamboat navigation. It is 30 miles northeast of Philadelphia, and 57 miles southwest of New York. The city is divided into two parts by the Assunpink Creek—Trenton proper and South Trenton. It is regularly laid out, and has many fine stores and handsome dwellings. It is built on a tolerably uneven surface. State street, which runs parallel with the river, contains many elegant residences. Main street, which intersects it at right angles, is the principal business thoroughfare. The situation of the city on the Delaware is very beautiful, and commands extensive views of the river and the vicinity.

A fine, covered bridge crosses the Delaware at the lower part of the town, connecting Trenton with the Pennsylvania shore of the river. It is used by the railway and by vehicles and pedestrians. Another bridge, also covered, spans the river about a mile above. The Delaware and Raritan Canal passes through the city, connecting it with New York and Philadelphia. There is railway communication between Trenton and all parts of the State and country.

There is excellent water-power at Trenton, and the city is to a considerable extent engaged in the manufacture of iron and iron-ware, flour, paper, locomotives, cars, etc.

The public buildings are, the *City Hall*; the *State Capitol*, a handsome edifice of stone, 100 by 60 feet, situated on State street, and overlooking the river; the *County Court House*, built in the Grecian style; the *State Lunatic Asylum*; and the *State Penitentiary*. The *State Library* is also located at Trenton.

The city possesses a system of public schools equal to any in the State in usefulness; it contains over 20 churches; and is governed by a Mayor and Council. The population in 1870 was 22,874.

Trenton was first settled by Phineas Pemberton and others, about 1680. In 1720 the settlement was called Trenton, in honor of Colonel William Trent, speaker of the Assembly. In 1790 it became the seat of Government for the State of New Jersey, and in 1792 was incorporated as a city. The most important event in its history is the battle of Trenton, which was fought within the present limits of the city, on the 26th of December, 1776. The Americans had lost the battle of Long Island, and had been forced to evacuate the City of New York, which was promptly occupied by the British under Sir Henry Clinton. A series of disasters ensued, and at the end of the year 1776 Washington had been driven across the Delaware, and the only troops that remained faithful to their colors consisted of less than 4000 half-starved men, destitute of blankets and tents. The people of the country were rapidly coming to the conclusion that the Colonial cause was hopeless, and were beginning to make their peace with the Royal authorities. Washington alone was hopeful, and he alone was resolved to put an end to the gloom of the situation. Learning that a large force of Hessians had been thrown forward to Trenton, where they held an exposed position, he suddenly faced about, crossed the Delaware in open boats, despite the snow and ice, on the night of December 25th, 1776, and at daybreak the next morning made a sharp attack on the Hessian force, surprising them and routing them completely. He took about 1000 prisoners, 6 brass field pieces, 1000 stand of arms, and 4 standards, and lost but 4 of his own men. On the night of the 26th he recrossed the Delaware to his own camp in Pennsylvania. This victory was highly important, as it marks the close of the long series of reverses we have referred to, and the beginning of the successful resistance of the nation. From this time forward the despondent took fresh courage from the example set them by their great commander, and with stout hearts and strong arms fresh attacks were made upon the enemy, resulting finally in the nation's independence. Twelve years later, as Washington was returning from New York to Mount Vernon, he was accorded a most enthusiastic and touching welcome by the citizens at Trenton Bridge.

NEWARK,

The largest and most important city in the State, is situated in Essex county, on the right bank of the Passaic River, 4 miles from its entrance into Newark Bay, 9 miles west of New York. The site of the city is chiefly a large plain, bounded on the west by a range of

moderate heights which extend from the northern to the southern limits of the town. The city is regularly laid off, and the streets are broad, straight, and shaded with fine trees. Broad street is the principal thoroughfare, and is one of the handsomest streets in the country. It is 120 feet wide, and is lined with noble elms. At intervals along its course, are tastefully laid off parks, famous for their beautiful trees. These parks are surrounded by elegant residences, and constitute the fashionable quarters of the city. Market street intersects Broad street, about the centre of the city, and communicates with the principal railway depot. The private streets are generally attractive. The more pretentious residences are of brown stone, freestone, or brick, but the city is, as a rule, built up with tasteful frame cottages located often in the midst of large grounds. Large numbers of persons doing business in New York have their residences in Newark. Upwards of 200 passenger trains go and come between the two cities every day.

The public buildings are generally handsome. The principal are, the *City Hall*, the *Custom House* and *Post Office*, the *Court House*, and the *Library Building*. They are all elegant and costly edifices. In addition to these, there are several buildings used by banks, insurance companies, and merchants, which are worthy of special notice.

The Literary and Educational Institutions are of a high character. Those most deserving notice are the *New Jersey Historical Society*, with a fine library of over 2000 volumes; the *Library Association*, with an elegant building and a collection of over 14,000 volumes; the *Newark Academy*, beautifully located in the most elevated part of the city; and the public schools, of which there are 12, and a high school.

There are more than 75 churches in the city, some of which are very handsome.

The city is well supplied with street railways; it is lighted with gas, is supplied with pure water, has an excellent system of sewers, and has a police and fire alarm telegraph, a steam fire engine department, paid by the city, and an efficient police force.

The Passaic River, which is navigable for steamers to the upper portion of the city, furnishes good water communication with New York and the ocean. The Morris Canal, extending from Easton, Pa., to Jersey City, passes through Newark. At its entrance into the western portion of the city is a steep inclined plain, over which loaded boats are passed on trucks, the motive power being furnished by the water of the canal. There is daily steamboat communication with New York, with which city Newark is connected by 3 lines of rail-

way. Railways diverge from Newark to the principal towns of the State.

The city has grown with great rapidity during the last 25 years, and owes its prosperity chiefly to its manufacturing interests. These are scattered through a number of generally small establishments, but foot up an enormous aggregate. There are over 550 establishments in the city, the annual product of which is estimated at over \$25,000,000. It is the principal point in the Union for the manufacture of jewelry. India rubber goods, carriages, omnibuses, machinery, castings, leather, boots, shoes, saddles, harness, trunks, and clothing are manufactured in large quantities. The India Rubber Works are very extensive, as are those for the manufacture of carriages, omnibuses, machinery, castings, etc.

Newark is a port of entry, but its commerce is almost entirely confined to the coasting trade. Its proximity to New York renders it insignificant as a port.

The city is governed by a Mayor and Council. The population in 1870 was 105,059. The foreign population is very large, and the city is the see of a Roman Catholic Bishop. In 1830 the population was 10,950; in 1840, 17,290; in 1850, 38,983; in 1860, 71,914.

Newark was settled in May, 1666, by a company of 30 families from New Haven, led by Captain Robert Treat, and the next year they were joined by an equal number of settlers from Guilford and Branford, Conn., led by their minister, the Rev. Abraham Pierson. Mr. Pierson had come originally from Newark, in England, and the new settlement was called after his old home. "Their object seems to have been to establish a Puritan community, to be administered under the laws of God, by members of the church, on strictly democratic principles. They left Connecticut because the colony of New Haven, to which they belonged, had been united to the Connecticut colony of Hartford, a union which interfered with their independence. The proprietors of New Jersey had just issued their liberal proposals to settlers, known as 'the grants and concessions;' and Treat and Pierson, and their associates, having obtained from Philip Carteret, the proprietary governor, a licence to purchase land, paid to the Indians for the tract which now constitutes Newark, Clinton, Orange, Bloomfield and Belleville, £310 New England currency, 12 Indian blankets, and 12 Indian guns. The settlers laid out the town plat of Newark, with its spacious streets and parks as they now exist.



FALLS OF PASSAIC AT PATERSON.

JERSEY CITY,

The second city in the State, is situated in Hudson county, on the right bank of the Hudson River, at its entrance into New York Bay, and immediately opposite the city of New York. The city limits at present include Jersey City, Hoboken, Hudson City, and the other towns in Hudson county. The site of Jersey City proper is low and flat, as is that of Hoboken, but Hudson City and the other towns now included within the corporate limits lie on a range of bold heights, extending back from the Hudson, which command fine views of New York and the surrounding country on both sides of the Hudson. From the highest point on these heights, New York, Brooklyn, the neighboring towns in Westchester county, New York, Jersey City, Newark, Paterson, Orange, and Elizabeth, the Hudson, East Hackensack, and Passaic rivers, New York and Newark Bays, Long Island Sound, and the Atlantic Ocean, may all be seen.

The streets are generally wide and straight, crossing each other at right angles. The appearance of the city is not prepossessing, though there are some handsome localities. There are no public buildings worthy of mention.

ELIZABETH,

The fifth city in the State, is situated in Union county, 15 miles west-southwest of New York, and 5 miles south by west of Newark. It is pleasantly located on elevated ground, and is one of the handsomest cities in the State. It is mainly taken up with frame cottages and villas, but brown stone and brick are now coming into general use. Street railways connect its various parts, and the New Jersey and New Jersey Central Railways intersect each other here, and connect it with New York and the various parts of the country. It contains several large manufactories, a number of handsome buildings devoted to business, and over 20 churches, some of which are very handsome. Large numbers of persons doing business in New York reside here. Its public schools are noted for their excellence. It is lighted with gas; is supplied with water; and is provided with an efficient police force, and a steam fire department. It is governed by a Mayor and Council, elected by the people. In 1870 the population was 20,838.

Elizabeth was settled in 1655, and was for a long time the capital and chief town of the Colony and State. It has always been noted as one of the most cultivated towns in the Union.

CAMDEN,

The sixth city of New Jersey, is situated on the left bank of the Delaware River, in Camden county, immediately opposite the city of Philadelphia, with which it is connected by means of 4 steam ferries. It is 32 miles south-southwest of Trenton. It is located in a large plain, and is regularly laid off. It is well built, and contains some handsome residences and commercial buildings. It owes its importance to its powerful neighbor, Philadelphia. It contains some extensive manufacturing establishments, and is the terminus of the Camden and Amboy, New Jersey Southern, and West Jersey railways. It is lighted with gas; is supplied with water; and has a steam fire department, and an effective police force. Its public schools are good and numerous, and it contains one or two literary institutions. It is governed by a Mayor and Council, chosen by the people. In 1870, the population was 20,045.

The city was incorporated in 1831.

The other important towns of the State are New Brunswick, on the Raritan River; Rahway, between New Brunswick and Elizabeth; Burlington, on the Delaware River, below Trenton; and Orange, near



Newark. Long Branch, in Monmouth county, and Atlantic City, in Atlantic county, on the sea shore, and Cape May, in Cape May county, at the mouth of the Delaware Bay, are among the most fashionable watering places in the Union.

THE BATTLE OF TRENTON.

The summer and fall of 1776 was the most gloomy period of the American revolution. General Washington had been obliged to retreat from Long Island to New York, thence over the Hudson to New Jersey, and through New Jersey to Pennsylvania, vigorously pursued by an enemy flushed with a series of success. The retreat through New Jersey was attended with circumstances of a painful and trying nature. Washington's army, which had consisted of 30,000 men, was now diminished to scarcely 3000, and these were without supplies, without pay, and many of them without shoes or comfortable clothing. Their footsteps were stained with blood as they fled before the enemy. The affairs of the Americans seemed in such a desperate condition, that those who had been most confident of success, began despairingly to give up all for lost. Many Americans joined the British, and took protections from them. In this season of general despondency, the American Congress recommended to each of the States to observe "a day of solemn fasting and humiliation before God."

General Washington saw the necessity of making a desperate effort for the salvation of his country. On the night of the 25th of December, 1776, the American army recrossed the Delaware, which was filled with pieces of floating ice, and marched to attack a division of Hessians, who had advanced to Trenton. The sun had just risen, as the tents of the enemy appeared in sight. No time was to be lost—Washington, rising on his stirrups, waved his sword towards the hostile army, and exclaimed, "*There, my brave friends, are the enemies of your country! and now all I have to ask of you is, to remember what you are about to fight for! March!*"

The troops, animated by their commander, pressed on to the charge; the Hessians were taken by surprise, and the contest was soon decided; about 1000 were taken prisoners, and 40 killed, among whom was their commander, (a German officer,) Colonel Rahl.

In this important expedition, Washington divided his troops into three parts,

which were to assemble on the banks of the Delaware, on the night of the 25th of December. One of these divisions, led by General Irvine, was directed to cross the Delaware at the Trenton ferry, and secure the bridge below the town, so as to prevent the escape of any part of the enemy by that road. Another division, led by General Cadwallader, was to cross over at Bristol, and carry the post at Burlington. The third, which was the principal division, and consisted of about 2100 Continental troops, commanded by General Washington in person, was to cross at M'Konkey's ferry, about nine miles above Trenton, and to march against the enemy posted at that town. The night fixed on for the enterprise was severely cold. A storm of snow, mingled with hail and rain, fell in great quantities; and so much ice was made in the river, that the artillery could not be got over until three o'clock; and before the troops could take up their line of march it was nearly four. The general, who had hoped to throw them all over by twelve o'clock, now despaired of surprising the town; but knowing that, he could not repass the river without being discovered and harassed, he determined, at all events, to push forward. He accordingly formed his detachment into two divisions, one of which was to march by the lower or river road, the other, by the upper or Pennington road. As the distance to Trenton by these two roads was nearly the same, the general, supposing that his two divisions would arrive at the place of destination about the same time, ordered each of them, immediately on forcing the outguards, to push directly into the town, that they might charge the enemy before they had time to form. The upper division, accompanied by the general himself, arrived at the enemy's advanced post exactly at eight o'clock, and immediately drove in the outguards. In three minutes, a firing from the division that had taken the river road, gave notice to the general of its arrival. Colonel Rahl, a very gallant Hessian officer, who commanded in Trenton, soon formed his main body, to meet the assailants; but at the commencement of the action he received a mortal wound. His troops, at once confused and hard pressed, and having already lost their artillery, attempted to file off by a road on the right, leading to Princeton; but General Washington perceiving their intention, threw a body of troops in their front, which intercepted and assailed them. Finding themselves surrounded, they laid down their arms. About 20 of the enemy were killed; and 909, including officers, surrendered themselves prisoners of war. The number of prisoners was soon increased to about 1000, by the additional capture of those who had concealed themselves in houses. Six field pieces, and a 1000 stand of small arms, were also taken. Of the Americans, two privates only were killed; two were frozen to death; one officer and three or four privates were wounded. General Irvine being prevented by the ice from crossing the Delaware, the lower road toward Bordentown remained open: and about 500 of the enemy, stationed in the lower end of Trenton, crossing over the bridge in the commencement of the action, marched down the river to Bordentown. General Cadwallader was prevented by the same cause from attacking the post at Burlington. This well-judged and successful enterprise, revived the depressed spirits of the colonists, and produced an immediate and happy effect in recruiting the American army.

THE MURDER OF THE REV. JAMES CALDWELL.

The next summer, in June, Knyphausen made his sudden and apparently objectless inroad into New Jersey. On the night of the 24th, Mr. Caldwell slept

in his own house, but was wakened early in the morning by the news of the approach of the enemy. Mounting his horse in haste, he started for headquarters with the information. He had proceeded but a short distance, however, when he began to have serious fears for his wife and family that he had left behind. The former, when she bade him good-bye, told him that she had no apprehensions for her own safety, for the enemy, she said, would not harm her and her little children. He had often left them in a similar way before, and always found them safe on his return, but now he was oppressed with unusual anxiety, and, after striving in vain to shake it off, turned his horse and galloped back. As he rode up to the door, his wife came out to inquire what he wanted. He told her that he wished her and the children to accompany him to camp, for he felt very uneasy about leaving them behind. But she, knowing they would encumber his movements, smiled at his fears, saying there was no danger at all, and declined entirely to leave the house. In the meantime she went in and brought from the breakfast table a warm cup of coffee. While he sat on his horse drinking it, the enemy came in sight. Handing back the cup, and flinging her a hasty farewell, and commending her to the care and mercy of the God in whom they both trusted, he struck his spurs into his horse and dashed away.

He had not been gone long before she had cause to regret that she had not yielded to his entreaties, for columns of smoke rising in the distance—the screams of terrified women and children running through the streets, told her that the enemy was on a raid, and murder and devastation were marking their passage. She saw at once that she was surrounded with deadly perils, but calm as became the wife of a hero as well as clergyman, she took her infant and retired into a private room to commit herself and children in prayer to God. Arising from her devotions, she sat down upon the bed, and was pondering on her desolate condition, when the maid, who had accompanied her with the other children, stepped to the window to look out. As she did so, she saw a “red coat” jump over the fence into the yard. Alarmed, she turned quickly and told Mrs. Caldwell. The latter knew at once that evil was intended her, and arose from the bed either to watch the man’s actions or to pass out of the room, when the villain caught a glimpse of her through the window. He knew her at a glance, and, having come on purpose to kill her, he raised his musket and fired at her through the window, when she fell amid her terrified children, pierced by two balls. In the midst of the alarm and confusion that followed, the torch was applied to the house, and soon the little parsonage was wrapped in flames. It was with great difficulty that some of the neighbors, whom the maid informed of the murder, were enabled to drag the body out of the burning building. But, having accomplished this, they were compelled to flee, leaving it exposed in the hot sun in the public street, where it lay for hours with no one humane enough to throw a covering over the pale and ghastly face. At length some of her friends obtained permission from the enemy to remove it into the only house left standing near by.

Mr. Caldwell was at the “Short Hills,” with the army, while this murderous scene was being enacted at his quiet home. That evening passing by chance two soldiers who were talking in whispers, he heard the name of “Mrs. Caldwell” repeated two or three times. Suspecting at once that something was wrong, he asked them what they were talking about—if anything had happened to Mrs. Caldwell. They at first hesitated to reply, unwilling to break to him the painful intelligence, but he besought them so earnestly to let him know the worst that

they finally told him all. The good man staggered like a smitten ox under the sudden blow, and turned pale as death. Rallying, however, he murmured a broken prayer and turned away to weep alone. That was a painful night to the noble patriot, for not only did he mourn deeply over the tragical end of his wife, whom he loved tenderly, but he was filled with apprehension respecting his orphaned children, one of whom was an infant—now in possession of the enemy. In the morning he procured a flag of truce and went over to "Connecticut Farms." The quiet little village was a heap of smoking ruins, with only here and there a solitary building standing as monuments to mark the desolation. In one of these lay the lifeless body of his wife, and in an adjoining apartment were grouped his weeping children.

The enemy, after burning Connecticut Farms, kept on towards Springfield, with the intention of committing the same barbarous cruelties there. Mr. Caldwell, after seeing his wife buried and his children placed in the care of one of his parishioners, hastened forward to join the army. At Springfield, a sharp engagement took place between the enemy and the American troops, and though the former were compelled to beat a hasty retreat, it was not till they had burned the village to the ground. Mr. Caldwell was in the hottest of the fight, and seeing the fire of one of the companies slackening for want of wadding, he galloped to the Presbyterian meeting house near by, and, rushing in, ran from pew to pew, filling his arms with hymn books. Hastening back with these into the battle, he scattered them about in every direction, saying, as he pitched one here and another there, "Now, put Watts into them, boys." With a laugh and a cheer, they pulled out the leaves, and ramming home the charges did give the British Watts with a will.

The next year this patriotic, gifted man met the tragical fate of his wife, and sealed his devotion to his country with his blood.

New Jersey remained comparatively tranquil after the raid of Knyphausen, and flags of truce were constantly passing to and fro to New York, and only soldiers enough were left in the State to act as sentinels at main points. At this time there lived in New York a family by the name of Murray, who had relatives residing in Elizabethtown, and who were much beloved by the people in the vicinity for their kindness to Jersey prisoners confined in the city. One of the family, Miss Murray, wishing to visit Elizabethtown, came to Elizabethtown Point on the 24th of November, under a flag of truce. Mr. Caldwell went down in a carriage to meet her, and accompany her to the town. The details of the events that followed, I will let Dr. Murray tell in his own language. "A sentry was kept up at that time at the fort. Tying his horse outside the sentinel, Mr. Caldwell proceeded to the wharf, and taking with him Miss Murray, placed her in his carriage, and then returned to the boat for a small bundle that belonged to her. Thus he passed three times the man who was keeping guard. With a small package he was returning a second time to his carriage, when the sentinel ordered him to stop, thinking, probably, that there was something contraband in the bundle. He replied that the bundle belonged to the young lady in his carriage. The sentinel said that it must be examined. Mr. Caldwell turned quickly about to carry it back to the boat, that it might be opened there, when the fatal ball struck him. The captain of the guard, hearing the report of a gun, looked around, and saw Mr. Caldwell staggering before him. He ran and caught him in his arms and laid him on the ground, and without speaking a word he almost instantly expired, the ball having passed through his heart.

"The man who shot him was James Morgan, belonging to the Jersey militia—an Irishman by birth, and a man of the most debased and profligate character. He was always drunk when he could be; and liquor turned him into a savage. His family resided near a well in Elizabethtown, into which a child of his fell one day and was drowned. When he returned, he found his child dead, and taking it by the arms he beat the broken-hearted mother with the dead body of her own child until her cries brought some of the neighbors to her rescue."

Whether Morgan was on duty as a sentinel when he shot Caldwell is at least questionable. It is said that on his trial it was proved that he had just been relieved. Different motives are assigned for the murder. Some say that Morgan was angry because he had not received his regular wages, and, inasmuch as Caldwell was commissary, supposed "he was responsible for the neglect;" others, again, say that he was bribed by the British, or Tories. Whatever the motives might have been that influenced him, he was, after a fair trial, convicted of murder, and hung the next January. The body of Mr. Caldwell was placed on some straw in the bottom of a wagon, and taken up to town, and the next Tuesday buried.

A MUTINY IN THE CONTINENTAL ARMY.

The situation of General Washington was often, during the war, embarrassing, for want of proper supplies for the army. It was peculiarly so while at Morristown, in 1780, where he had encamped during the winter. The cold was uncommonly severe, and the army suffered extremely. The following account of the state of the American army is taken from "Grimshaw's History of the United States: "

"The distress suffered by the American army did not arrive at its highest pitch until the present season. The officers of the Jersey line now addressed a memorial to their State Legislature, complaining, that four months' pay for a private would not procure for his family a single bushel of wheat; that the pay of a colonel would not purchase oats for his horse; and that a common laborer received four times as much as an American officer. They urged, that unless an immediate remedy was provided, the total dissolution of their line was inevitable; and concluded by saying, that their pay should be realized, either by Mexican dollars, or something equivalent. Nor was the insufficiency of their support the only motive to complaint. Other causes of discontent prevailed. The original idea of a continental army, to be raised, paid, and regulated upon an equal and uniform principle, had been, in a great measure, exchanged for that of State establishments; a pernicious measure, partly originating from necessity, because State credit was not quite so much depreciated as continental. Some States, from their superior ability, furnished their troops not only with clothing, but with many articles of convenience. Others supplied them with mere necessities; whilst a few, from their particular situation, could give little or perhaps nothing. The officers and men, in a routine of duty, daily intermixed and made comparisons. Those who fared worse than others were dissatisfied with a service that allowed such injurious distinctions. Mutiny began to spread, and at length broke out among the soldiers at Fort Schuyler. Thirty-one privates of the garrison went off in a body. They were overtaken, and 13 of their number instantly killed. About the same time, two regiments of Connecticut troops mutinied, and got under arms, determined to return home, or gain subsistence by the bayonet.

Their officers reasoned with them, and used every argument that could interest their passions or their pride. They at first answered, 'Our sufferings are too great, we want present relief;' but military feelings were, in the end, triumphant; after much expostulation, they returned to the encampment.

'It is natural to suppose that the British commander would not lose so favorable an opportunity of severing the discontented from their companions, and attracting them to his own standard. He circulated a printed paper in the American camp; tending to heighten the disorders by exaggeration, and create desertion by promises of bounty and caresses. But, so great was the firmness of the soldiery, and so strong their attachment to their country, that on the arrival of only a scanty supply of meat, for their immediate subsistence, military duty was cheerfully performed, and the rolls were seldom dishonored by desertion.

"The necessities of the American army grew so pressing that Washington was constrained to call on the magistrates of the adjacent counties for specified quantities of provisions, to be supplied in a given number of days; and was compelled even to send out detachments to collect subsistence at the point of the bayonet. Even this expedient at length failed; the country in the vicinity of the army being soon exhausted. His situation was painfully embarrassing. The army looked to him for provisions; the inhabitants for protection. To supply the one, and not offend the other, seemed impossible. To preserve order and subordination, in an army of republicans, even when well fed, regularly paid, and comfortably clothed, is not an easy task; but to retain them in service, and subject them to the rules of discipline, when wanting not only the comforts but often the necessaries of life, requires such address and abilities as are rarely found in human nature. These were, however, combined in Washington. He not only kept his army in the field, but opposed those difficulties with so much discretion as to command the approbation of both soldiers and people.

"To obviate these evils, Congress sent a committee of its own members to the encampment of the main army. They confirmed the representations previously made of the distresses and the disorders arising from commissarial mismanagement, which everywhere prevailed. In particular, they stated that the main army was unpaid for five months; that it seldom had more than six days' provision in advance; and was on different occasions, for several successive days, without meat; that the horses were destitute of forage; that the medical department had no sugar, tea, chocolate, wine, or spirituous liquors of any kind; that every department was without money and without credit; and that the patience of the soldiers, worn down by the pressure of complicated sufferings, was on the point of being exhausted.

"Misfortunes, from every quarter, were at this time pouring in upon the United States. But they seemed to rise in the midst of their distresses, and gain strength from the pressure of calamities. When Congress could obtain neither money nor credit for the subsistence of their army, the inhabitants of Philadelphia gave \$300,000 to procure a supply of necessary provisions for the suffering troops; and the ladies of that city, at the same time, contributed largely to their immediate relief. Their example was generally followed. The patriotic flame which blazed forth in the beginning of the war was rekindled. The different States were ardently excited; and it was arranged that the regular army should be raised to 35,000 effective men."



PENNSYLVANIA.

Area,	46,000 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	2,906,115
Population in 1870,	3,521,951

THE State of Pennsylvania, one of the original members of the Union, lies between $39^{\circ} 43'$ and $42^{\circ} 15'$ N. latitude, and between $74^{\circ} 42'$ and $80^{\circ} 35'$ W. longitude. Its extreme length is about 310 miles, and its extreme width, from north to south, about 160 miles. It is bounded on the north by New York and Lake Erie, on the east by New York and New Jersey, from which it is separated by the Delaware River, on the south by Delaware, Maryland, and West Virginia, and on the west by West Virginia and Ohio.

TOPOGRAPHY.

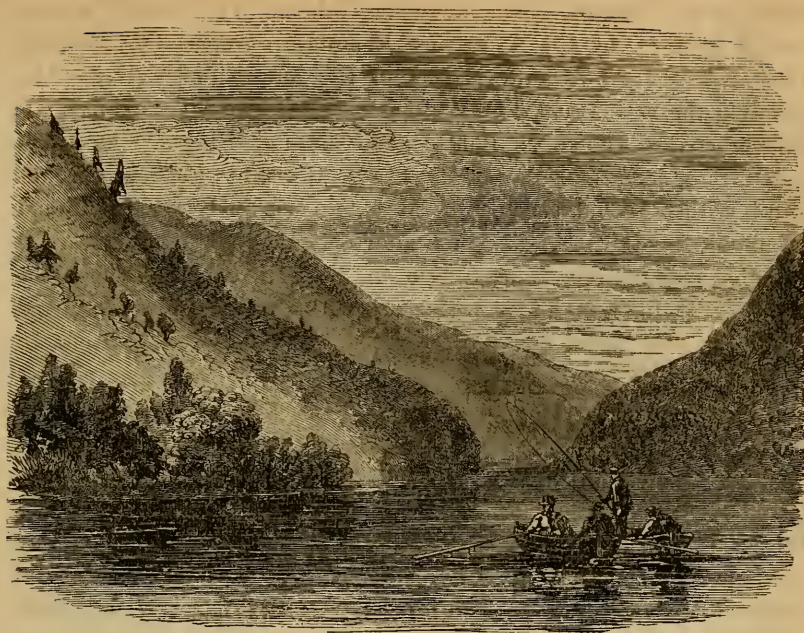
"No State in the Union presents a greater variety of surface than Pennsylvania. Though they do not rise to any great elevation (seldom above 2000 feet), its mountains spread over about one-fourth of the State in parallel ridges, in a direction generally from northeast to southwest, and occupy the southern, central, and eastern counties. Though all forming parts of the great Appalachian chain, they are known by various local appellations. Commencing below Easton, on the Delaware, we have the South Mountain; then in order, proceeding west or northwest, the Blue or Kittatinny Mountains (both entering the State from New Jersey, and passing southwest into Maryland), and the Broad Mountain, which lies south of the North Branch of the Susquehanna. We now cross the river just mentioned, but still have with us the Broad Mountain, under the name of the Tuscarora; passing which, we come upon another ridge, lying mostly

south of the Juniata River, known as Sideling Hill; which is succeeded in turn by the Alleghany Mountains proper, the dividing ridge between the Atlantic slope and the Mississippi Valley. Descending the very gradual Ohio slope, we cross two inferior but well-defined chains, known as Laurel and Chestnut Ridges. As before stated, these mountains do not rise to a great height; the South Mountain is within 1000, and the Blue Mountain within 1500 feet. Broad Mountain is said to rise higher above its immediate base than the Alleghany range, but to be inferior to them in elevation above the sea. These different ridges are separated by valleys, now contracted within narrow limits, and now spreading out to a width of from 15 to 30 miles. The entire belt in Pennsylvania spreads over a space of 200 miles—the greatest breadth the Alleghany range attains in its whole course from Maine to Alabama. In the northern part of the State the mountains become high and rugged hills; the west is also hilly, and the southeast and northwest moderately so, but occasionally level. The rivers of the western part of the State, cutting their way through the table-land, present sometimes precipitous shores of several hundred feet in height, and many valleys bear evident marks of their having been formed by running water.” *

The Delaware River washes the eastern shore of the State, and furnishes the principal means of access to the sea. The city of Philadelphia, the second in size in the Union, is situated on this stream, about 40 miles from its entrance into Delaware Bay.

The Susquehanna is the principal river of the State. It is formed by two branches, the eastern rising in Otsego Lake, in central New York, and the western in western Pennsylvania. They unite and form the main stream at Northumberland, 60 miles above Harrisburg. Then flowing in a southeasterly direction, it enters the State of Maryland, and empties into Chesapeake Bay. The East, which is also called the North, Branch is 250 miles long, and the West Branch 200 miles. The length of the main stream is about 150 miles. They all flow through a very beautiful and fertile country, which is also rich in mineral resources. A series of canals extends from the mouth of the river to Northumberland, and the navigation of its branches is improved in several places. The principal tributary of the Susquehanna is the Juniata, which enters it above Harrisburg, and which is famous for its beautiful and picturesque scenery.

* Lippincott's Gazetteer, p. 1453.



VIEW ON THE JUNIATA RIVER.

The Alleghany River is the principal stream in the western part of the State. It rises in Potter county, and flows northward into New York, after which it sweeps back into Pennsylvania, and pursuing a southwesterly course, unites at Pittsburg with the Monongahela (which rises in West Virginia and flows northward to Pittsburg), and forms the Ohio. It is navigable for small steamers for about 200 miles above Pittsburg. The Ohio lies in this State for the first fifty miles of its course.

The Schuylkill is a beautiful river in the eastern part of the State. It empties into the Delaware at Philadelphia, and supplies that city with fresh water. The Lehigh flows into the Delaware at Easton.

Lake Erie, already described in another chapter, is the only lake lying in the State. It washes the northwest part of Pennsylvania for about 50 miles.

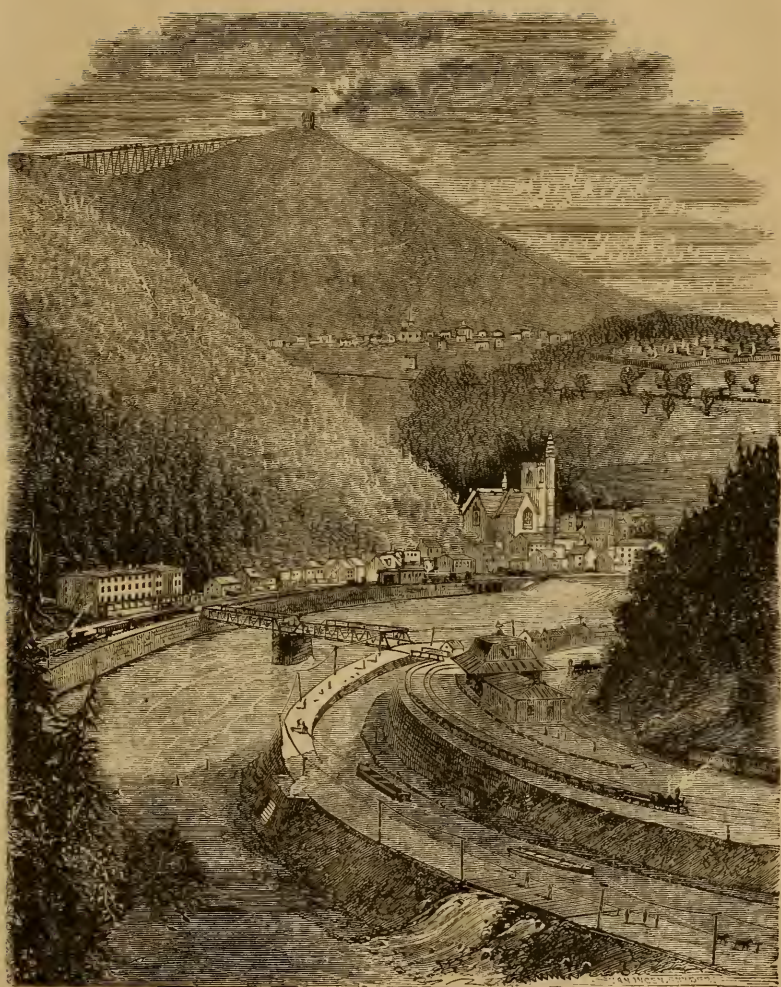
MINERALS.

“Pennsylvania stands first among the United States in the abundance of her coal and iron. Though not possessing a great variety



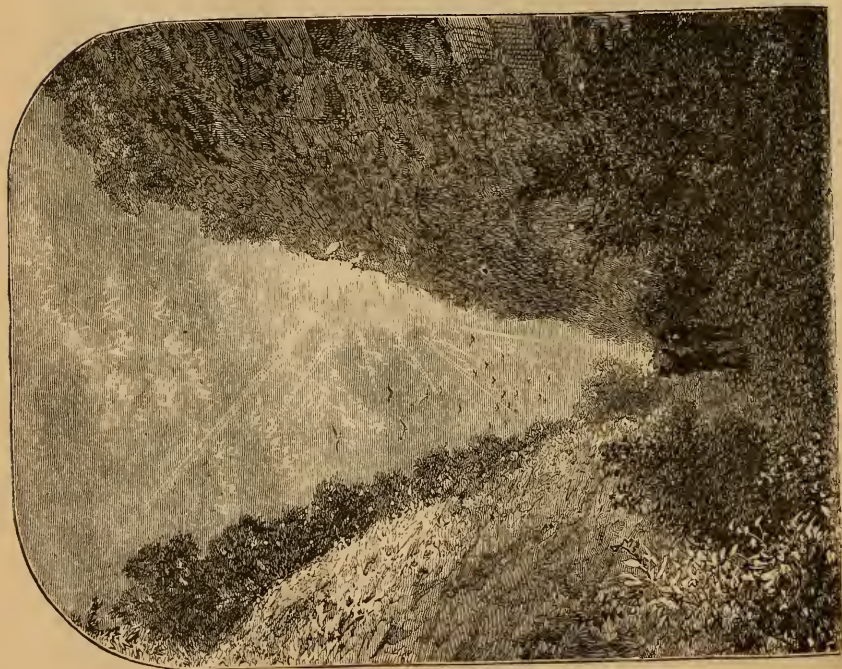
THE SCHUYLKILL ABOVE PHILADELPHIA.

of rare minerals, and none of the precious metals, she has those which have made England the wealthiest and most powerful nation on the globe, while Spain and Portugal, with their gold, silver, and diamond mines, have become poor in national wealth, and have sunk to a low degree of political influence. Owing no doubt to her homely, but useful minerals, Pennsylvania has advanced, between 1840 and 1850, in a greater ratio in population than even the Empire State (New York), or that vigorous and youthful giant of the West, Ohio. The vast anthracite coal fields of Pennsylvania lie mostly between the Delaware and Susquehanna rivers, about the head-waters of the Lehigh, Schuylkill, and Lackawana. In 1854 this region sent to market, 5,919,555 tons of coal; in 1864, the product had increased to 10,564,926. Nearly half of this came from Schuylkill county. At Blossburg, in Tioga county, and in Clinton county, are mines of bituminous coal, said to be equal, if not superior, to the Newcastle coal of England; while the region around Pittsburg, the commencement of the coal field of the Mississippi Valley, abounds in coal of the same kind, but little inferior in purity. Cannel coal of fine quality is found in Beaver county. The bituminous coal mined in western Pennsylvania, in 1864, was estimated at 3,000,000 tons. Petroleum abounds in

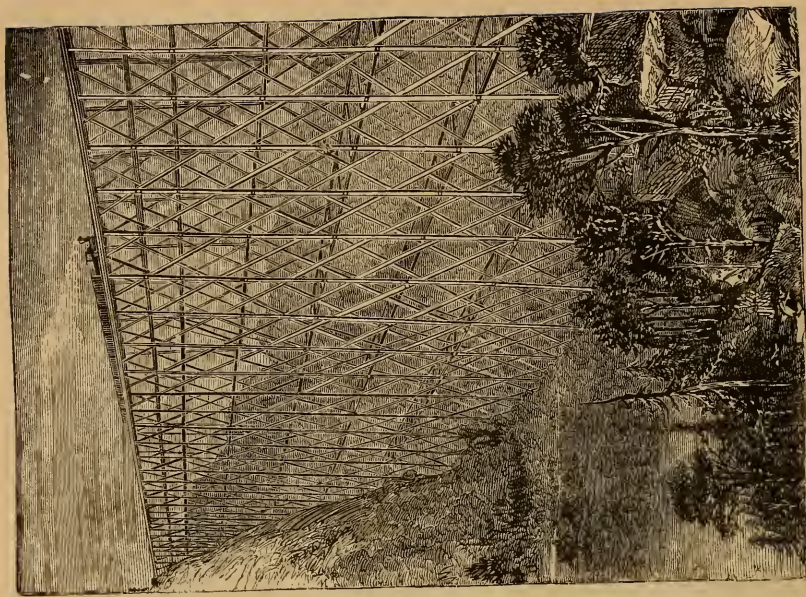


MAUCH CHUNK AND MOUNT PISGAH.

The "Switzerland" of America.

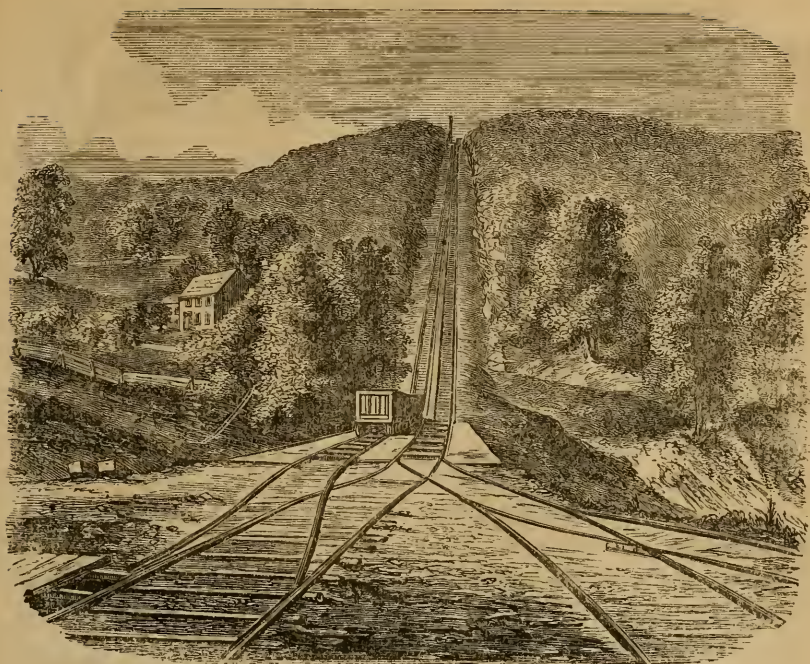


SCENE NEAR PORTAGE STATION, PA.



THE CELEBRATED NESQUEHONING TRETTLE BRIDGE.

168 feet high.



MOUNT PISGAH AND THE COAL REGION.

the western part of the State. The best evidences of the quantity and excellence of the iron of Pennsylvania is the fact, according to the census report of 1850, that nearly half of the pig, cast, and wrought iron manufactured in the Union was from her forges and furnaces. This State also abounds in lime, marble, slate, and stones suitable for building. Marble is particularly abundant in Chester and Montgomery counties. The most important copper mines in Pennsylvania are in the same counties. Zinc is mined in the vicinity of Bethlehem, plumbago in Bucks county, and lead in Chester and Montgomery counties. A bed of this mineral, of great richness, is reported to have been discovered recently in Blair county. Chromium occurs in Chester and Lancaster counties. Scattered over the State are some of the following minerals: titanium, plumbago, magnetic iron ore, iron pyrites, magnesia, talc, asbestos, barytes, zircon, tourmalin, marl, etc. Salt springs exist on the Monongahela, Kiskeminitas, and Beaver rivers, and in other parts of the State. Nearly 12,000,000 bushels of salt were manufactured here in 1860. Nitre or saltpetre has recently been discovered in an extensive deposit, and of great richness,

in the central part of the State. There are several medicinal springs, generally chalybeate, the most noted of which are Bedford, in the county of the same name; York, in Adams county; Doubling Gap, in Cumberland; Yellow Springs, in Chester; and Ephrata, in Lancaster county." *

CLIMATE.

The southern and eastern portions of Pennsylvania have a milder climate than the western part. In the latter, the winters are long and severe. The summers are very hot all over the State, and all parts are liable to sudden changes from heat to cold. The spring comes early in the southern counties, but is late in the others. As a whole the State is one of the healthiest in the Union.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

As a general rule the soil of the State is good. That of the limestone regions, and along the river valleys is excellent, and there are some fine lands in the mountain valleys. Pennsylvania is largely engaged in agriculture, being one of the first States in the Union, with respect to its productions. The system of farming is enlightened and progressive, and the people are amongst the most industrious in the world.

In 1870 there were 11,515,965 acres of improved land in the State, and 5,740,864 acres of unimproved land. The remainder of the agricultural wealth of the State for the same year was as follows :

Cash value of farms,	\$1,043,481,582
Value of farming implements and machinery,	\$35,658,196
Number of horses,	460,339
" milch cows,	706,437
" working oxen,	30,048
" sheep,	1,794,301
" swine,	867,548
Value of all live stock,	\$115,647,075
Bushels of wheat,	19,672,967
" rye,	3,577,641
" Indian corn,	34,702,006
" oats,	36,478,585
" barley,	529,562
" Irish potatoes,	12,889,367
" buckwheat,	2,532,173
Tons of hay,	2,848,219

* Lippincott's Gazetteer, p. 1454.

Pounds of maple sugar,	1,545,917
“ tobacco,	3,467,532
“ beeswax and honey,	824,022
“ wool,	6,561,722
“ butter,	60,834,644
“ cheese,	1,145,209
Gallons of milk sold,	14,411,729
Value of orchard products,	\$4,208,094
“ market garden products,	\$1,810,016
“ slaughtered animals,	\$28,412,903
“ forest products,	\$2,570,370

COMMERCE.

The returns of the port of Philadelphia do not fairly exhibit the foreign trade of this State, since a large portion of its commerce passes through the port of New York. The railroads and canals of the State transport immense quantities of freight every year, and the trade with the South and West, by the Ohio River, is enormous. The discovery of petroleum has greatly increased the foreign and domestic trades of the State. The export of this article from Philadelphia in 1868 was 40,505,620 gallons. In the same year the petroleum trade of Pittsburg amounted to about \$13,000,000. In 1860 the State produced \$21,266,906 worth of coal, which amount has been greatly increased since then. In 1863, the tonnage of the State was 300,741, of which 94,305 was steam tonnage. In 1861, the total imports of the State amounted to \$12,628,348, and the exports to \$10,013,097.

MANUFACTURES.

Pennsylvania is largely engaged in manufactures, ranking in this respect amongst the most important States in the Union. In 1870, there were 37,200 establishments in the State devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts, employing 319,487 hands, a capital of \$406,821,845; * consuming raw material worth \$421,197,673, and yielding an annual product of \$711,894,344. There were 153 cotton mills, employing a capital of \$12,575,821, and 3881 male and 6105 female hands, consuming raw material worth \$10,749,472, paying \$3,510,534 for labor, and yielding an annual product of \$17,565,028. There were 403 woollen factories, employing 5699 male and 5032 female hands, and a capital of \$14,066,785; consuming raw material worth \$17,325,849; paying \$4,340,066 for labor; and yielding an

* The largest amount so invested in any State.

annual product of \$27,361,897. The other manufactures for the same year were valued as follows :

Leather,	\$28,899,396
Pig iron,	32,636,410
Rolled iron,	57,976,471
Steam engines and machinery,	29,248,153
Agricultural implements,	3,652,295
Sawed and planed lumber,	35,254,590
Flour,	49,476,245
Malt and spirituous liquors,	11,692,528
Boots and shoes,	16,864,310
Furniture,	7,981,560
Jewelry, silverware, etc.,	2,011,431

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

Pennsylvania was one of the first states in the task of providing means of rapid and direct communication between her various points. The first great work ever undertaken in this country was the turnpike from Philadelphia to Pittsburg, which until the completion of the Erie Canal of New York, was the great highway between the East and the West. In 1825, the State began an extensive system of canals. This undertaking was badly managed, however, and she did not at once derive the great advantages from them she had expected. Many of these works were injudiciously located in parts of the State where there was no need for them. The consequence was that the profits of the paying lines had to be used to defray the expenses of these unprofitable routes, and in the course of time the State was burdened with a heavy debt on their account. The railroads have taken away the greater part of their business, and have thus greatly increased the burden to the State.

The railroads of Pennsylvania are amongst the most important in the country. Philadelphia has direct railroad communication with all the important towns of the State, with New York, Baltimore, and all parts of the Union. Seven or eight main lines centre in this city, and three or four in Camden, New Jersey, immediately opposite. These bring through freights and passengers from all parts of the Union to Philadelphia.

In 1872, there were about 1100 miles of canal navigation in Pennsylvania, constructed at a cost of over \$40,000,000. In the same year there were 5113 miles of completed railroads in the State. The cost of construction was about \$250,000,000. This makes Pennsylvania the first State in the Union with respect to the length and cost of her railroad system.

EDUCATION.

The State has always been noted for the excellence of its schools. One of the first efforts of the original settlers was to provide for public education, and we find that the plan of Government drawn up by William Penn in 1682, provided for the establishment of public schools, and their control by the Governor and Provincial Council. The first Constitution of the State (1776) required the establishment of at least one such school in each county, and in 1786, the State made a donation of 60,000 acres of the public lands for the support of the public schools. In 1836, a permanent school fund was established.

The educational system is under the control of a State Superintendent of Public Instruction, who is appointed by the Governor. The State is divided into 2002 school districts, each of which is immediately controlled by six school directors, two of them being elected each year. They hold office for three years. They manage all the business affairs of the schools, appoint the teachers, select the text-books, and make an annual report to the county superintendent. This officer is required to be an experienced teacher, and is elected for three years by the school directors of the county. It is his duty to make a thorough inspection of the schools in his county, to satisfy himself of the competency of the teachers and the proficiency of the pupils, and to make an annual report of his observations to the State Superintendent. The Public Schools of the city of Philadelphia are distinct from those of the State, and are supported by the municipal authorities. Including these, there were 14,212 public schools in Pennsylvania in 1870. The number of teachers was 17,612, of pupils, 828,981. The whole amount expended during the year for public instruction was \$7,771,-761.20.

In Philadelphia, in the year 1867, there were 374 schools, with a force of 1314 teachers. The total number of pupils was 129,226, the average attendance, 66,333.

There are five normal schools ; at Millersville, Mansfield, Edinboro, and Kutztown. The city of Philadelphia has a fine normal school of its own. The law provides for the establishment of twelve such schools in the State, whenever they may become necessary. The present number of pupils is 2675.

There are 13 colleges in Pennsylvania. One of these, the College of Agriculture, is a State institution. It is in vigorous operation, and is meeting with great success. The Medical School of the University

of Pennsylvania, and the Jefferson Medical College, the former founded in 1765, and the latter in 1824, are amongst the best schools of their kind in the world. Besides these are 6 other Medical Colleges. There are 7 Theological Seminaries, 1 Law School, and 9 Colleges of Literature and Science in the State. The University of Pennsylvania and Girard College at Philadelphia; Dickinson College at Carlisle; Washington College at Washington; the Lewisburg University at Lewisburg; Franklin and Marshal College at Lancaster; and the Pennsylvania College at Gettysburg, are the principal institutions in the State.

In 1870, there were 601 academies, seminaries, and private schools in the State, with 848 teachers, and 24,815 pupils.

In 1860, there were 1416 libraries in Pennsylvania, containing 1,344,924 volumes. Of these, 529, with 761,299 volumes were public.

In the same year, the number of newspapers and periodicals published in the State was as follows: daily 29, semi-weekly 3, tri-weekly 1, weekly 297, monthly 28, quarterly 6, annual 3,—total 367. Of these 277 were political, 43 religious, 25 literary, and 22 miscellaneous.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The public institutions of this State have long been noted for their extent and excellence.

The *Pennsylvania Hospital for the Insane*, at Philadelphia, the *State Lunatic Hospital*, at Harrisburg, and the *Western Pennsylvania Hospital*, near Pittsburg, are among the best establishments of their kind in the world. Besides these there are three incorporated hospitals, and several private establishments.

The *Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb*, established in 1820, and the *Institution for the Blind*, established in 1833, both at Philadelphia, are open to pupils from New Jersey and Delaware. Those States, consequently, contribute to the support of these establishments.

The *Training School for Feeble-minded Children* is at Media. It is supported in part by the State.

There are two *Houses of Refuge*. One, for Western Pennsylvania and located at Pittsburg, is maintained entirely, and the other, at Philadelphia, in part, by the State, which also maintains 39 schools and homes for the support and instruction of soldiers' orphans.

There are two great Penitentiaries in Pennsylvania—one at Philadelphia, and the other at Alleghany City. The Philadelphia peni-

tentiary is one of the most complete establishments of its kind in the country. Both prisons are conducted on the silent system, and the prisoners are kept separate from each other. The discipline is mild but firm, and every effort is made to reform as well as punish the prisoner. In 1866 there were 569 convicts in the Philadelphia prison, and 418 in the Alleghany prison.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, the value of church property in Pennsylvania was \$52,758,384. The number of churches was 5668.

FINANCES.

The total debt of the State in December, 1874, was \$24,568,635. The funded debt was \$24,371,884, and the unfunded debt \$196,751. The receipts of the Treasury for the fiscal year ending November 30, 1874, amounted to \$7,697,119, and the expenditures to \$6,642,567. A large part of the debt was discharged in the same year.

In September, 1874, there were 199 National Banks in operation in the State, with a capital of \$52,000,000.

GOVERNMENT.

Every male freeman, twenty-one years old, who has paid a State or County tax, within two years, (except in cases of male freemen between 21 and 22 years, who are not required to pay tax as a condition to this right,) and has resided in the State for one year, and in his election district ten days, is entitled to vote at the elections.

The State Government is conducted by a Governor, Auditor-General, and Surveyor-General, and a Legislature, consisting of a Senate (of 33 members, elected for 3 years, one-third retiring annually), and a House of Representatives (of 100 members, elected annually), all chosen by the people. There are, also, a State Treasurer, elected annually by the Legislature, and a Secretary of State, Attorney-General, and Adjutant-General, and several other executive officers, appointed by the Governor.

The Supreme Court of Pennsylvania consists of a Chief Justice and four Associate Judges, elected by the people for fifteen years. The Judge who has the shortest term to serve, is Chief Justice. This is the High Court of Errors and Appeals.

The District Courts are two in number, and are established at Philadelphia (for the City and County of Philadelphia) and at Pittsburg (for the County of Alleghany). Their jurisdiction extends over all civil suits in which the claim exceeds \$1000, and in certain other cases prescribed by law. They are the principal commercial courts for the cities in which they are held.

The Courts of Common Pleas are each presided over by one Judge, elected for ten years, and one or more Associate Judges, elected for five years. There is a court in every county. They are also Judges of Oyer and Terminer and general jail delivery in their respective counties.

Besides these, there are police courts in the cities.

For purposes of government, Pennsylvania is divided into 65 counties. Harrisburg is the capital of the State.

HISTORY.

In 1627, a colony of Swedes and Finns, well provided with means from Europe, settled along the lower part of the western shore of the Delaware, and in a short time spread their settlements to the mouth of the Schuylkill River. In 1655 they were compelled by the Dutch to submit to the authorities of New Amsterdam, and in 1664 passed under the rule of the English. In 1681, Charles II. granted the territory west of the Delaware to William Penn, in payment of a debt due by the British Government to Penn's grandfather. Penn colonized his grant at once with members of his own faith (Friends or Quakers), and in 1682 founded the City of Philadelphia. His grant included the present State of Delaware, which was then known as the "lower counties." In 1699, Pennsylvania granted these counties a separate Assembly, but they continued subject to the authority of her Governor until 1776, when, upon the breaking out of the Revolution, they formed an independent establishment. Penn's charter failed to define with exactness the boundaries of his grant, and this led to considerable unpleasantness with the neighboring provinces, which was not settled until 1767, when the surveys of Mason and Dixon definitely established the boundaries of the province.

The first years of the colony were passed in peace with the Indians, whose friendship was won and retained by the wise and just policy pursued towards them. Upon the outbreak of the war of the Revolution, however, they waged upon the colonists a cruel and exterminating warfare, the character of which is well shown by the terrible massacre at Wyoming.



DEEP CUT, PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD.

The lower counties of the State were settled by the Swedes originally, and after them by the Friends or Quakers. These thrifty people soon brought the colony to a flourishing condition, and made it, perhaps, the most successful of all. They were joined in 1750 by a large number of no less thrifty Germans, who settled in the counties around and west of Philadelphia, in the southern part of the State, to which they gave the peculiar characteristics which distinguish them to-day.

The colonists contributed their full share to the wars with France, and gave a hearty support to the measures for securing American independence. Philadelphia was at this time the largest and most important city in America, and was the place at which the Continental Congresses first met. It continued to be the seat of Government until the occupation of the city by the British in 1777, compelled Congress to withdraw to York. The battles of Brandywine and Germantown were fought in this State about the same time. The massacres of Wyoming and Paoli, in the same year, and the memorable winter at the Valley Forge, are thrilling incidents in the revolutionary history of Pennsylvania.

The Convention which adopted the Constitution of the United States held its sessions in the city of Philadelphia, which had already been made memorable by the adoption of the Declaration of Independence.

The Whiskey Insurrection, to which we have already alluded, occurred during Washington's administration.

The State bore its share of the burdens of the war of 1812, and has since always maintained its position as one of the wealthiest, most progressive, and influential members of the Union.

During the late Rebellion, it contributed (exclusive of militia) a force of 362,284 men to the army and navy of the United States.

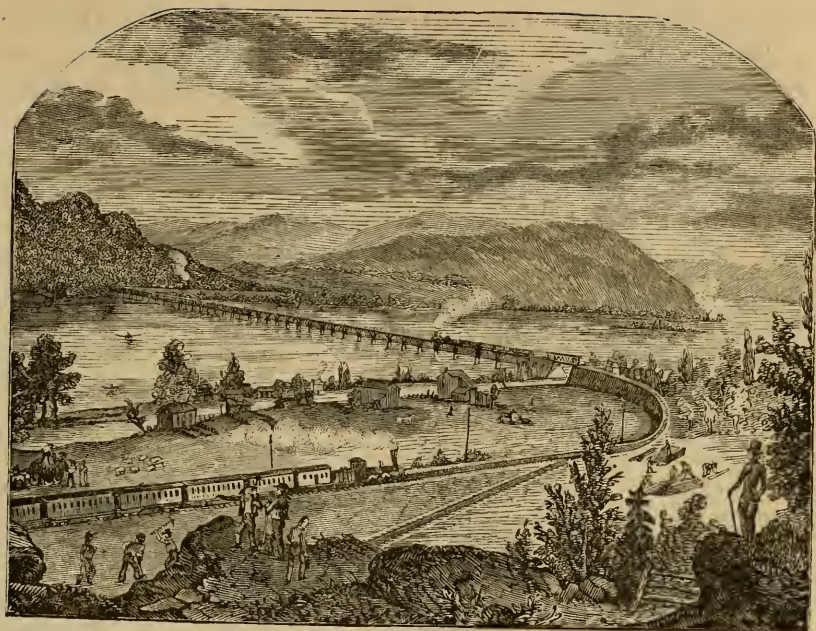
The southern counties suffered very much from the incursions of the Confederates. In one of these raids the town of Chambersburg was burned. In June, 1863, the State was invaded by the Confederate army under General Lee. This force was defeated at Gettysburg, in Adams county, on the 3d of July, in one of the most memorable and decisive battles of the war. In consequence of this defeat, General Lee retreated into Maryland, and recrossed the Potomac.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the principal cities and towns are, Philadelphia, Pittsburg, Alleghany City, Scranton, Reading, Lancaster, Erie, Easton, Norristown, Pottsville, York, Allentown, Danville, Carlisle, Williamsport, Chambersburg, West Chester, Oil City, Wilkesbarre, Johnstown, and Altoona.

HARRISBURG,

The capital, and sixth city of the State, is situated in Dauphin county, on the east bank of the Susquehanna River, 106 miles west by north of Philadelphia, and 110 miles north of Washington. Latitude 40° 16' N.; longitude 76° 50' W. The city is beautifully located, and its elevated points command fine views of river and mountain scenery. It lies in the midst of a fertile and healthy country, and is regularly laid off. The business of the place is extensive, owing to the fact that it is one of the principal railroad centres of the State, and has canal transportation to the tide-waters of Pennsylvania and Maryland. Its proximity to the great coal and iron regions of the State also adds to its importance. It is already engaged in manufacturing enterprises to a considerable extent. Several extensive iron furnaces, rolling mills, a cotton factory, a manufactory of railway cars, and other works are



SUSQUEHANNA ABOVE HARRISBURG.

carried on. The city is rapidly growing in size and population, and promises to be a large and important inland city.

The streets are wide and well paved, and the city is substantially built. In its general appearance it resembles Philadelphia, the buildings being generally of red brick trimmed with white marble. Front street, a handsome avenue, overlooks the Susquehanna, and contains many of the handsomest residences in the city.

The Public Buildings are few in number. The *State House* is an imposing edifice, and occupies a picturesque and commanding position upon a natural eminence, a little north of the centre of the city; and from its dome a fine view may be obtained of the broad and tortuous river, its beautiful islands, its bridges, and the adjacent ranges of the Kittatinny Mountains. The *Land Office*, a brick building, stands on the right of the State House; and the *State Department*, also of brick, on the left. To the south of the Land Office, is the *State Arsenal*. The *Court House*, on Market street, is a stately structure, built of brick and surmounted by a dome. The State House contains a large and valuable library.

There are 9 public schools in the city, and 19 churches. There are

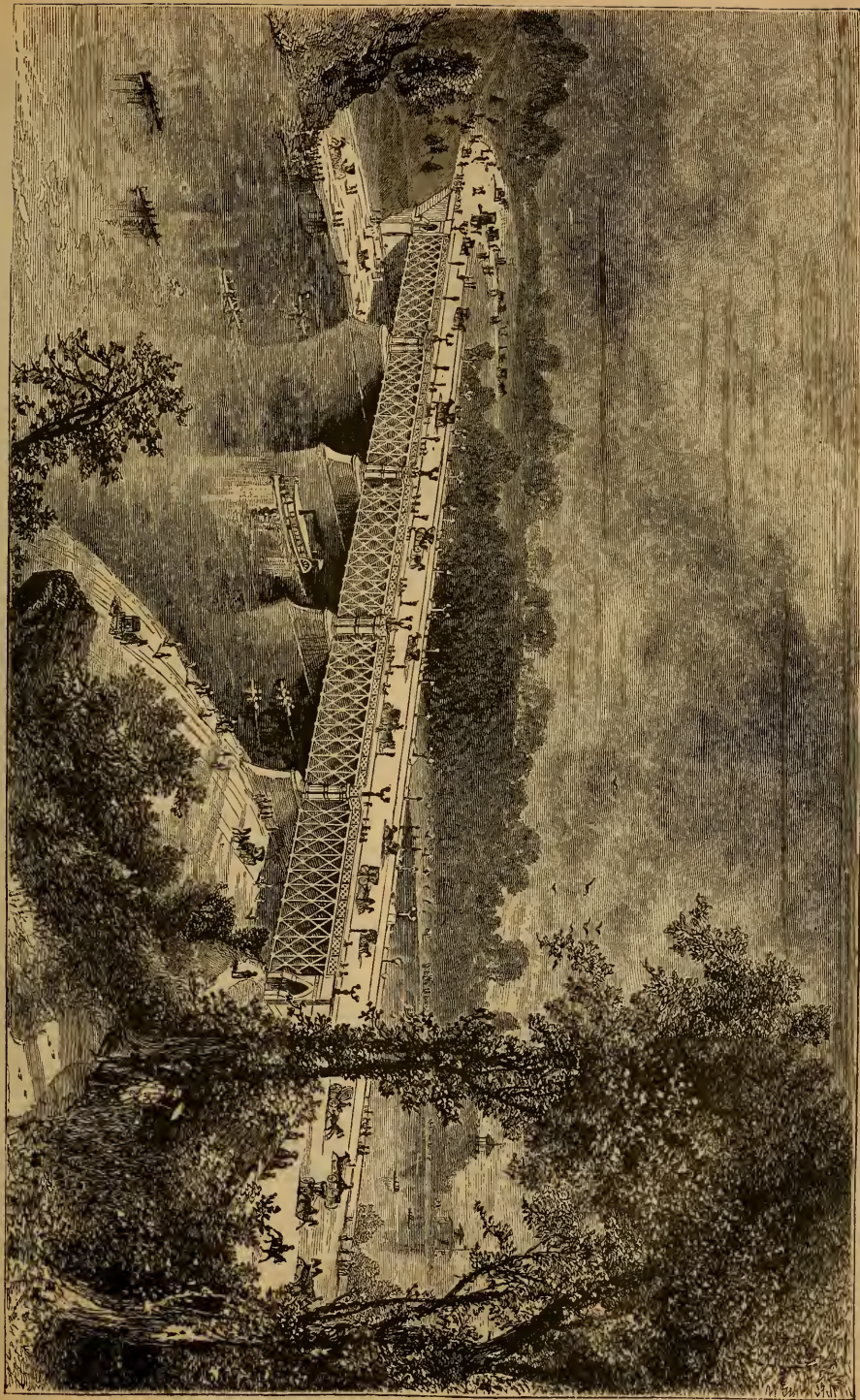
also an efficient police force, and a steam fire department. The city is lighted with gas, and supplied with pure water from the river. It is governed by a Mayor and Council, elected by the people. In 1870, the population was 23,109.

The first white settlement made at Harrisburg was in 1719, by an Englishman named John Harris. He purchased from the proprietaries of Pennsylvania a grant of 300 acres of land near his residence, and bought of other grantees 500 acres adjoining. He carried on a considerable trade with the neighboring Indians. In 1753, the Penns granted to his son, John Harris, jr., the right to establish a ferry across the Susquehanna at this point, and the settlement became known as Harris' Ferry. In 1784, the town was laid out. It was made the seat of justice of the new county formed from Lancaster and called Dauphin, in honor of the heir to the Crown of France. The town itself was called Louisburg, in honor of Louis XVI. In 1791, it was incorporated as a town, and its name changed to Harrisburg. In 1812, it became the capital of the State; and in 1860, it was incorporated as a city, and divided into six wards.

PHILADELPHIA,

In the county of Philadelphia, the largest and most important city of the State, and the second city of the United States, lies between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, 5 miles from their junction and nearly 100 miles from the Atlantic Ocean, following the course of the Delaware River and Bay. It is 136 miles northeast of Washington City, and 87 miles southwest of New York. The city proper is located in a perfectly level plain; but the recent additions, especially those on the northwest, are built on a fine rolling country, which abounds in picturesque views which offer a striking contrast to the uniform flatness of the old city. As originally laid out in 1701, the city was bounded by the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, and by Vine and Cedar streets. In 1854, the adjoining districts of Spring Garden, Penn, Northern Liberties, Kensington, and Richmond on the north, West Philadelphia on the west, and Southwark, Moyamensing and Passyunk on the south, were consolidated with the city in one municipal government. These constitute, with old Philadelphia, the city proper; but by a recent Act of the Legislature, the limits of the city of Philadelphia have been made coextensive with those of the county, which include an area of 120 square miles. The entire length of the city, from north to south, is 20 miles; and its greatest breadth, from

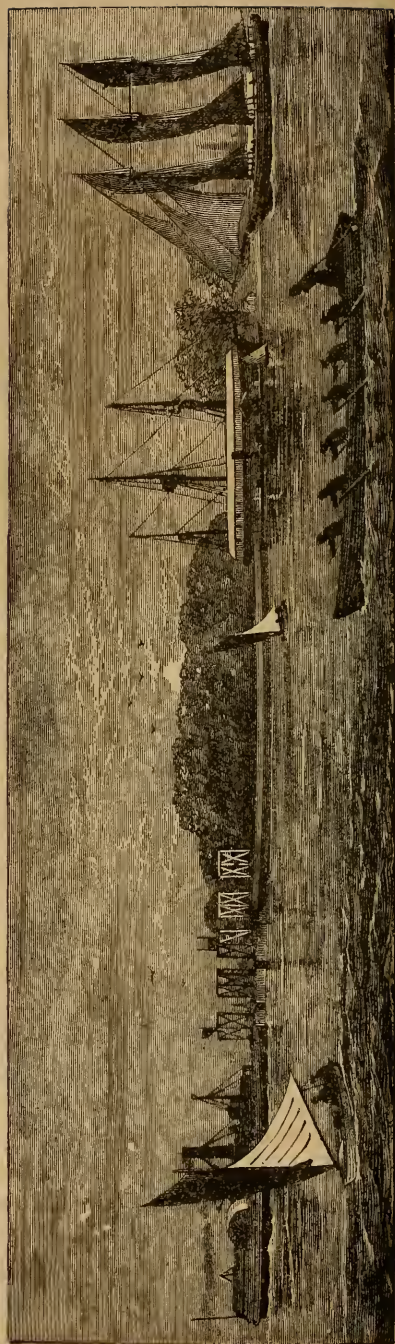
Clark, Reeves & Co., Builders.



1000 feet long, 100 feet wide, cost \$1,500,000.



FORT DELAWARE.





VIEW OF PHILADELPHIA FROM FAIRMOUNT PARK.

east to west, 8 miles. The suburbs are very beautiful, and are thickly built up with handsome country seats, villas, cottages, etc. They abound in exquisite scenery, especially in the vicinity of the Wissahickon. The most densely settled portion of the city is the southern part, between the two rivers, where the peninsula is only about 2 miles in width. From this point it widens to the northward. Unlike New York, the population is not crowded into a few houses. The dwellings contain one family as a rule, and rarely more than two. They are small as a general thing, large mansions being the exception, save in the richer portions of the city. The densely inhabited portion covers an area of about 9 square miles, extending for about 5 miles along the Delaware, and 2 miles along the Schuylkill. The largest part of the business of the city is transacted between Vine and Spruce streets, east of 12th street. The wealthiest private section, that inhabited by the "fashion," is south of Walnut, and west of 7th street, Walnut being considered the most desirable street in the city. Business is making considerable inroads upon this section. Here are to be found some of the most beautiful and elegant residences in the Union. Arch street, north of Market, and Broad street towards its northern end, are among the handsomest and most desirable thoroughfares. Market street, which is entirely devoted to business, extends



THE WISSAHICKON AT CHESTNUT HILL.

throughout the city from east to west, beginning at the Delaware and crossing the Schuylkill. It is 100 feet in width, and is lined with large warehouses, usually of brick. Broad street, 113 feet wide, extends from the northern to the southern limit of the city. Its northern portion is lined with elegant residences. The central and southern portions are devoted to business, and contain some of the handsomest buildings in the place.

Philadelphia is laid out with great regularity. The original plan of Penn contemplated a city with 10 streets running from river to



PHILADELPHIA SMALL HOMES.

river, and crossed by 25 other streets at right angles to them. Broad and Market streets were to divide this city into four nearly equal portions, a considerable area being reserved at the intersection of those streets for four large squares. These constituted the famous Penn Square, which has been recently stripped of its magnificent trees and shrubbery to make way for the new municipal buildings which are to occupy its four divisions. The streets are usually from 50 to 66 feet in width, with a few of greater breadth. Those running from north to south are numbered, beginning at the Delaware or eastern side; those extending from east to west are named. In the old sections of the city, the sewerage is defective, in consequence of the flatness of the land, but the higher portions have nothing to complain of in this respect. Considering its size and importance, Philadelphia is remarkably deficient in good pavements. The streets are generally paved with cobble stones, but Belgian and wooden pavements are now beginning to make their appearance. The general aspect of the city is bright and pleasing, mingled with a certain primness, however, due to its Quaker origin. Except in those portions along the water, it is very clean, and is healthy. Market street divides it into two



THE LEDGER BUILDING.

portions, called north and south. The houses are numbered according to the streets between which they are located, 100 to a block. Thus 740 would be located between 7th and 8th streets. This system renders it comparatively easy to find a building in any part of the city. That portion of the city lying east of the Schuylkill is called Philadelphia, and all west of that river West Philadelphia.

As a rule the city is built of brick, but of late years many edifices of brown and free stone, iron and marble, have been erected. Market street is the principal business thoroughfare, and is lined with immense stores, generally devoted to the wholesale trade. Chestnut street corresponds to Broadway in New York, and is the handsomest business street. It is quite narrow, but contains the most elegant buildings in the city, and is one of the handsomest and most attractive streets in the Union. It contains the principal hotels; Independence Hall; the Custom House; and the Post-Office. Third street is the great money centre, and is occupied for a considerable distance with the offices of bankers and brokers, many of which are handsome buildings.

Now that Penn Square has been destroyed, there are 7 public squares in the city. These are Independence, Washington, Rittenhouse, Logan, Franklin, Jefferson, and Norris Squares. They cover each from 6 to 8 acres, are enclosed with tasteful iron railings, and are ornamented with magnificent trees, shrubbery, fountains, etc. They are surrounded with large and elegant residences.



The principal pleasure ground is Fairmount Park, in the northwest portion of the city. This magnificent pleasure ground lies on both sides of the Schuylkill River, from the Fairmount water-works to the mouth of the Wissahickon, and along both banks of the latter stream to Chestnut Hill, a distance of $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles along the Schuylkill and 6 miles along the Wissahickon, making in all, a distance of $13\frac{1}{2}$ miles. The entire park comprises nearly 3000 acres, making it the most extensive pleasure ground in the world. Its great length enables it to include the most beautiful portions of the Schuylkill and the far-famed



THE WISSAHICKON.

Wissahickon, and it abounds in views of landscape and river scenery unsurpassed in any portion of the world. It is rich in forest trees, on which the white man's hand has never been laid. It is still in its infancy as a park, the work of improvement having been scarcely begun : but what has been accomplished gives promise of a judicious and tasteful assistance of nature. In its primeval state, this park



THE UNION LEAGUE, BROAD STREET.

constituted one of the loveliest regions in America. When art and wealth have done their part, it will be indeed worthy of the pride of the people of Philadelphia.

The Park contains the Fairmount water-works, and a number of interesting and historical localities. Small steamers ply on the Schuylkill from Fairmount water-works to the Falls, and carriages supplied by the Commissioners convey visitors to the principal points at a moderate rate of fares. From the high grounds in the northern portion a fine view of the city and the surrounding country is obtained.

The public buildings are numerous and handsome. *Girard College*, in the northern portion of the city, is the finest specimen of Grecian architecture in the United States. It is built of white marble, and is entirely fire-proof. There are two additional buildings on each side of the main building, all of which are of marble. The *U. S. Custom House*, on Chestnut street, also of white marble, is a magnificent structure in the Doric style. It is built on a raised platform, and both fronts are ornamented with noble colonnades of fluted Doric columns. The *U. S. Mint*, on Chestnut street, extends back to Olive street, 220 feet. It is built of marble, and is the principal establishment of the Federal Government for the coining of money. The *Merchants' Exchange*, at the intersection of Walnut, Third, and Dock streets, is a handsome building of white marble. The *State House*, or as it is



NEW MASONIC TEMPLE, ON BROAD STREET.

better known, *Independence Hall*, is a plain edifice of brick, remarkable only for its venerable appearance and its interesting history. It was in this building that the early sessions of the Continental Congress were held, and here was adopted the famous Declaration of Independence, on the 4th of July, 1776. The *Union League House* on Broad street, is a handsome edifice of brick, used as a club house by the Union League of Philadelphia. The *Masonic Temple*, just completed, on Broad street between Market and Arch, opposite to the new city buildings, is one of the most magnificent structures in the city. Many of the churches are elegant and imposing.

The theatres are about 6 in number, and besides these there are a number of inferior places of amusement. The *Academy of Music* on Broad street, is one of the largest and finest halls in the country; but the other theatres, though handsome, are not equal to those of the other large cities of America.

The hotels are large, elegant, and well kept. The principal are the Continental, the La Pierre, the Girard, the Merchants', the American, and Colonnade Hotel. The Continental is a splendid building, and in its internal arrangements is equal to any house of the kind in the Union.

The city is well supplied with provisions by means of its excellent markets, of which there are 24. Some of these are handsome structures of brick and iron; others are less pretentious; but the display of edibles of all kinds to be seen in them is perhaps the finest in the

world. The great market garden regions of the Middle States lie so close to Philadelphia, that but a few hours intervene between the gathering of the articles and their delivery to the purchaser in the market.

The Educational, Literary, and Scientific Institutions are numerous and of a very high order. The Public Schools have long been noted for their excellence. They are distinct from the State Schools of this kind, and are conducted by the city. There are about 375 free schools within the corporate limits, including two high schools. The average attendance of pupils is about 67,000. There are numerous private schools and academies, which are well attended. Philadelphia has always been famous for the care bestowed by its people upon the education of the young, and no doubt owes a large share of its prosperity to this care.

The University of Pennsylvania, 9th street, between Chestnut and Market, embraces four departments, viz.: the Academical, the Collegiate, the Medical, and the Law. It ranks among the first institutions of its kind in America, and its Medical College is the oldest in the Union. *The Jefferson Medical College* is also a famous and flourishing institution. *The Female Medical College* is devoted to the



HEMLOCK GLEN ON THE WISSAHICKON.

object indicated by its name. The others are an *Eclectic and Homœopathic Medical College*, a *College of Pharmacy* for the education of druggists and chemists, a *College of Dental Surgery*, a *College of Physicians*, which is one of the principal sources of the American Pharmacopœia, and a *Polytechnic College*, organized on the plans of the Industrial Colleges of France and Germany. *The Wagner Free Institute*, the gift of Professor Wagner, is a fine institution. *Girard College*, in the northwest portion of the city, about two miles from the *State House*, was founded by Stephen Girard, a native of France and



NEW ACADEMY OF NATURAL SCIENCES.

a merchant of Philadelphia, who died in 1831. He bequeathed \$2,000,000 for this purpose. The buildings were completed in 1847, and the institution was opened January 1, 1848. It is devoted to the "gratuitous instruction and support of destitute orphans." The buildings, 6 in number, are of white marble.

The American Philosophical Society has a valuable library and collection of minerals, fossils, and ancient relics. *The Franklin Institute* is a flourishing society composed of manufacturers, artists, mechanics, and persons friendly to the mechanic arts. It possesses a library of over 8000 volumes, and holds an annual exhibition in October. *The Academy of Natural Sciences* is one of the best institutions of its kind in the Union. It possesses a library of 26,000 volumes, and a remarkably fine collection of specimens, embracing over 200,000 subjects. *The Historical Society of Pennsylvania* was founded for the purpose of diffusing a knowledge of local history, especially in relation to the State of Pennsylvania. It has published a number of valuable works on this subject. It possesses a library of 18,000 volumes, and a valuable collection of contemporary documents and relics.

The Philadelphia Library was founded in 1731 through the influence of Benjamin Franklin. It numbers about 90,000 volumes, and is free to all who wish to use it. *The Mercantile Library* is supported by the subscriptions of its members. It contains over 40,000 volumes. *The Athanæum Library* numbers about 25,000 volumes. Connected

with it are a news and reading room and a chess room. *The Apprentices' Library* contains 22,000 volumes; the *Friends' Library* 7000 volumes; and the *Law Association Library* 7500 volumes.

The Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts possesses a valuable permanent collection of paintings, and holds an annual exhibition of new works. *The Artists' Fund Society*, the *Numismatic Society of Philadelphia*, and the *School of Design for Women* are the other art societies.

The Benevolent and Charitable Institutions number more than 100. We can mention but a few of the most prominent. In respect to her institutions of this kind, Philadelphia is second to no city in the land. *The Pennsylvania Hospital* is a noble institution, founded in 1751. It possesses an anatomical museum, and a library of more than 10,000 volumes. *The County Almshouse* is an immense structure, situated in the midst of large grounds in West Philadelphia. Connected with it is a hospital with 600 beds. *The Pennsylvania Insane Asylum* is in West Philadelphia. It is one of the best institutions of its kind in existence.



ON THE WISSAHICKON DRIVE.

Its grounds cover an area of 114 acres. The main building is 430 feet long. *The United States Naval Hospital*, on the east bank of the Schuylkill, below South street, is for the use of invalid officers and seamen of the U. S. Navy. *The Pennsylvania Institute for the Deaf and Dumb*, the *Pennsylvania Institution for the Blind*, the *Preston Retreat*, the *House of Refuge*, the *House of Correction*, and *Wills Hospital* are noble charities.

The Prisons are well conducted. *The Eastern State Penitentiary* occupies an area of 11 acres, enclosed by a stone wall, 30 feet high. It is built of stone, and consists of an octagonal building in the centre, from which radiate wings, with rows of cells on each side, and a



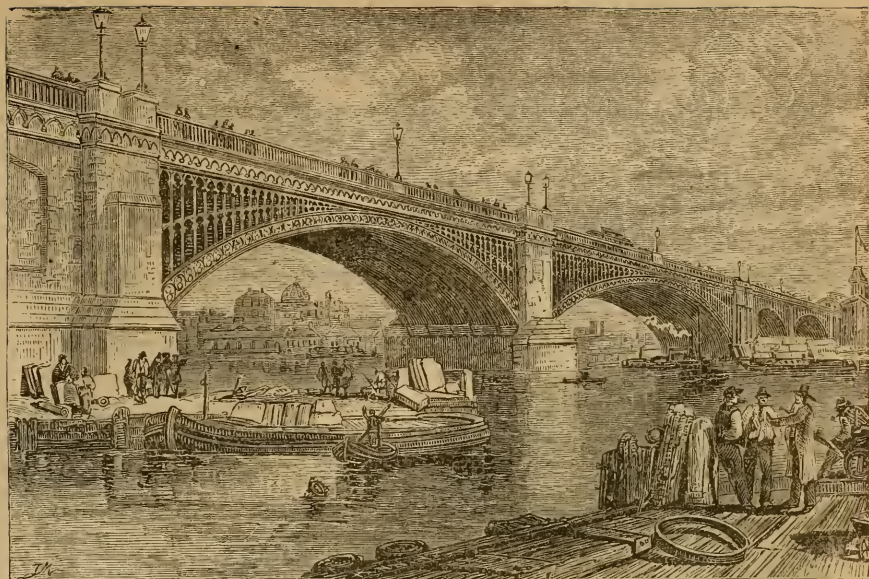
SCHUYLKILL RIVER, FROM THE FALLS.

passage way extending the entire length of each wing. It is a model institution in every respect. *The Philadelphia County Prison* is a massive building of stone. It is used for the purposes of a penitentiary as well as a county jail and work-house.

There are about 375 churches in the city. As a rule they are handsome and substantially built. The meeting-houses of the Friends are generally plain brick structures, remarkable for their absence of display. They are 14 in number.

The Cemeteries are, *Laurel Hill*, *Glenwood*, *Mount Vernon*, *Monument*, *Woodlands*, *Ronaldson's*, *Odd Fellows'*, and *Mount Moriah*. They are noted for their beauty. *Laurel Hill* is considered by many persons the most beautiful cemetery in the Union. It is located on the banks of the Schuylkill, in a lovely country, and contains many handsome tombs.

Philadelphia is lighted with gas of an excellent quality, which is supplied at a reasonable rate to the citizens. The gas works are conducted by the city, and the consumers are secured the best quality of gas that can be made, and are protected from the extortions of private companies. The total length of street mains is about 500 miles.



CHESTNUT STREET BRIDGE, OVER THE SCHUYLKILL, PHILADELPHIA.

The city is supplied with water from the Schuylkill River. In 1812 the Fairmount Water Works were begun, and in 1827 water was introduced into the city. Since then the city has constructed additional reservoirs. The Fairmount Water Works, on the Schuylkill River, in the northwest part of the city, are very interesting and constitute one of the chief attractions to visitors. The average amount used per diem exceeds 25,000,000 gallons.

Philadelphia is connected with the Jersey shore on the opposite side of the Delaware by six lines of steam ferries. Numerous steamers ply on the Delaware between Philadelphia and the towns on that river.

The street railway lines are 22 in number. They constitute the best system of street transportation in the Union. By the use of transfer tickets almost any point within the city limits can be reached at a uniform fare of seven cents.

There are 9 bridges in and near Philadelphia. Some of these are used exclusively by the railway lines entering the city. The bridge over the Schuylkill at Chestnut street is a beautiful structure of iron, 390 feet long, 42 feet wide, and 40 feet above high water. It cost \$500,000.

The city is provided with a strong and efficient police force, a fire

alarm telegraph, and a steam fire department, with more than 30 steam engines. It is divided into 24 wards, and is governed by a Mayor and Council elected by the people.

There are 10 daily, and 40 weekly newspapers, and about 50 periodicals, weekly and monthly, published in Philadelphia. A large share of the book publishing trade of the Union is carried on here.

Philadelphia is largely engaged in manufactures. The district of Manayunk is almost wholly engaged in these enterprises, devoting itself principally to cotton and woollen goods, and carpets. Sugar refining is carried on extensively in the city. Large quantities of shoes, chemicals, medicines, paints, umbrellas, parasols, carts, wheel-

barrows, household furniture, jewelry, iron manufactures of every description, steam engines, water and gas pipes, military goods, flour, soap, ale and beer, glass, clothing, candles, hosiery, etc., etc., are manufactured annually.—The total capital invested in manufactures in Philadelphia is estimated at nearly \$100,000,000. Ship building is also carried on to a limited extent.

The commerce of Philadelphia is large, and is growing rapidly. Its foreign



PUBLIC FOUNTAIN.

trade passed principally through the port of New York. There is now direct communication between Philadelphia and Europe with American iron steamships. In 1865, there were 541 arrivals from foreign ports. The city carries on an immense coasting trade, and its harbor is usually crowded with vessels. In 1865, there were 31,705 arrivals from American ports. The total value of exports from the port of Philadelphia in 1865 was, \$11,278,603. The imports in the same year amounted to \$7,164,744. The city also conducts a large trade with all parts of the country, and especially with the West, by means of its railroads. Immense quantities of coal and petroleum annually pass through Philadelphia, thus adding to its wealth.

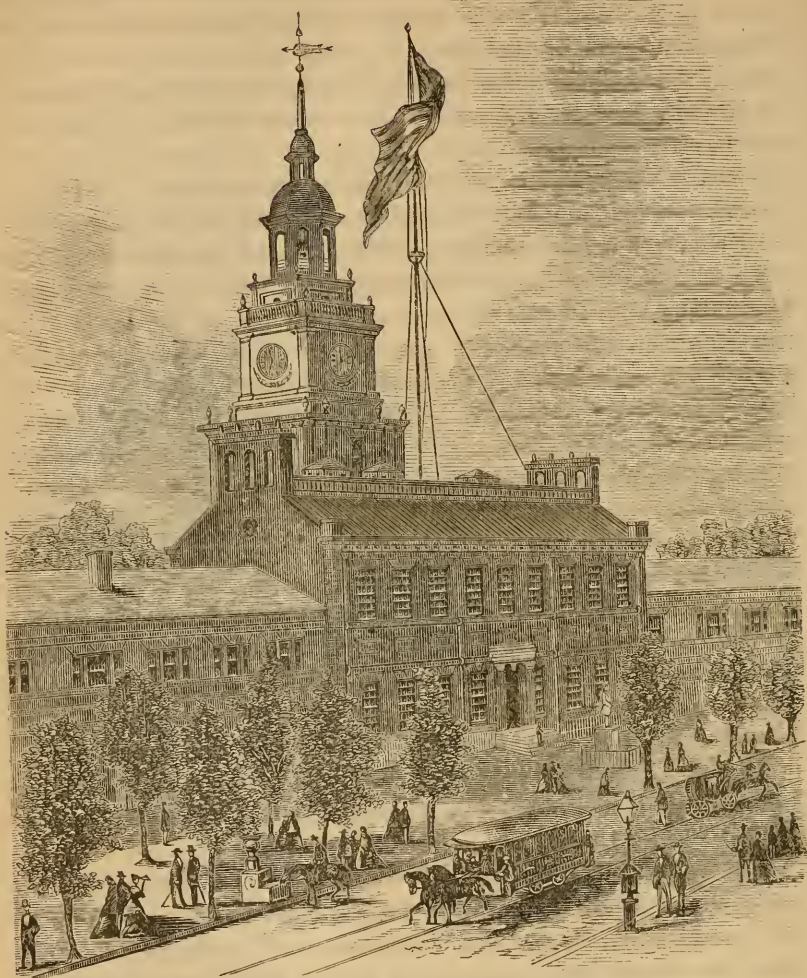
Philadelphia is at present the fourth city in the Union in commercial importance, but it is making rapid progress towards a higher position.

The *U. S. Navy Yard* is located on the Delaware River in the southeastern part of the city. It covers an area of 12 acres, and contains 2 large ship-houses, and all the necessary works. Some of the best vessels in the Navy have been constructed here. It also contains a sectional floating dock.

In 1870, the population of Philadelphia was 674,022. In 1684, it had 2500 inhabitants, in 1778, 42,520 ; in 1820 (up to which time it was the largest city in the Union), 167,325 ; and in 1860, 565,529.

The city of Philadelphia was founded by William Penn immediately upon taking possession of the grant of a province by Charles II. He sent out a body of colonists in August 1681, and in 1682, came over himself, and superintended the surveys of the new city. During the latter year, a large number of colonists arrived, the majority of whom were Friends or Quakers, and persons of respectability and wealth. Penn's deliberate intention was to found a large city, and the general plan of the present city differs very slightly from his original design. The new settlement was named by him Philadelphia, partly from the city of that name in Asia Minor, but principally because of the significance of the term. Penn's first care was to make an equitable treaty with the Indians, who, on their part, carefully abstained from molesting the new city, which prospered in a marked degree, and became the largest and most important place on the continent, which preëminence it held until about 30 years after the opening of the Revolution. Philadelphia bore its full share in the events of the early wars of the country with the French and Indians, though it was itself never assailed.

"In 1741, the city was divided into 10 wards. In December 1719, a printing press was set up, and Andrew Bradford began to publish the *American Weekly Mercury*, which was continued until 1746. In 1728, the *Gazette* was begun, which fell to Franklin to conduct in 1729. In the latter year, the building of a State House was authorized, the site was selected in 1730, and the building begun in 1732, and completed in 1735. The bell tower was not erected till 1750 ; and on June 7th, 1753, the new 'great bell,' cast here, weighing 2080 pounds, with the motto, 'Proclaim liberty,' etc., was raised to its place ; this is the bell celebrated in connection with the Declaration of Independence, and now in Independence Hall. The first Colonial Congress met in Philadelphia at Carpenters' Hall, a building still in



INDEPENDENCE HALL, PHILADELPHIA.

use as a hall, on September 4, 1774. Congress held its sessions at the State House in 1776, and here adopted and signed the Declaration of Independence. The British forces occupied the city from September, 1777, to June, 1778. A census was then taken by General Cornwallis, and there were found to be 21,767 inhabitants and 5470 houses, but the people were then much scattered. Congress resumed its

sessions at Philadelphia after the British left it, and continued to make this the national capital until the removal to Washington City in 1800. The battle of Germantown, October 4, 1777, was fought within the present chartered limits of the city, 7 miles northwest of the centre of the old city proper. The State Legislature removed its sessions to Harrisburg in 1800, simultaneously with the removal of the seat of the General Government to Washington. The foreign commerce and general trade of Philadelphia increased rapidly after the close of the Revolution. At the war of 1812 this commerce almost wholly ceased; in 1816, business and speculation revived, but the results were not fortunate, and direct external trade never recovered its former importance. Previous to 1839, the banking capital of Philadelphia was large, and for most of the period previous to 1836, it was the monetary centre of the country. The First Bank of the United States, established by Act of Congress, in 1791, with a capital of \$10,000,000, was located here; and the Second Bank of the United States was established here in 1816, with a capital of \$35,000,000. The subsequent failure of the bank under its State charter in 1839, and the loss of its large capital, greatly weakened the financial strength of the city, and the monetary centre was permanently transferred to New York. The revulsion of 1837, and the subsequent financial depression, fell heavily on the city and State, the recovery from them not being apparent until 1844. In 1793, the yellow fever made terrible ravages, nearly decimating the population, and driving numbers into the country; and again in 1798, it was epidemic. In 1832, the Asiatic cholera was very destructive, the victims numbering 770. More recently, there have been milder forms of epidemic cholera and yellow fever, but as a whole the city has from its foundation been conspicuously healthy."

The separate municipalities proved for many years the source of considerable trouble, and in 1854, they were all consolidated into one city, under the general name of Philadelphia. By the same enactment, the corporate limits of the city were made to embrace the entire county.

PITTSBURG,

The second city in the State, is situated in Alleghany county, at the junction of the Alleghany and Monongahela rivers, which here form the Ohio River. It is 357 miles west of Philadelphia, and 223 northwest of Washington city. The city is located on the triangular plain enclosed by the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers, and by Grant's Hill

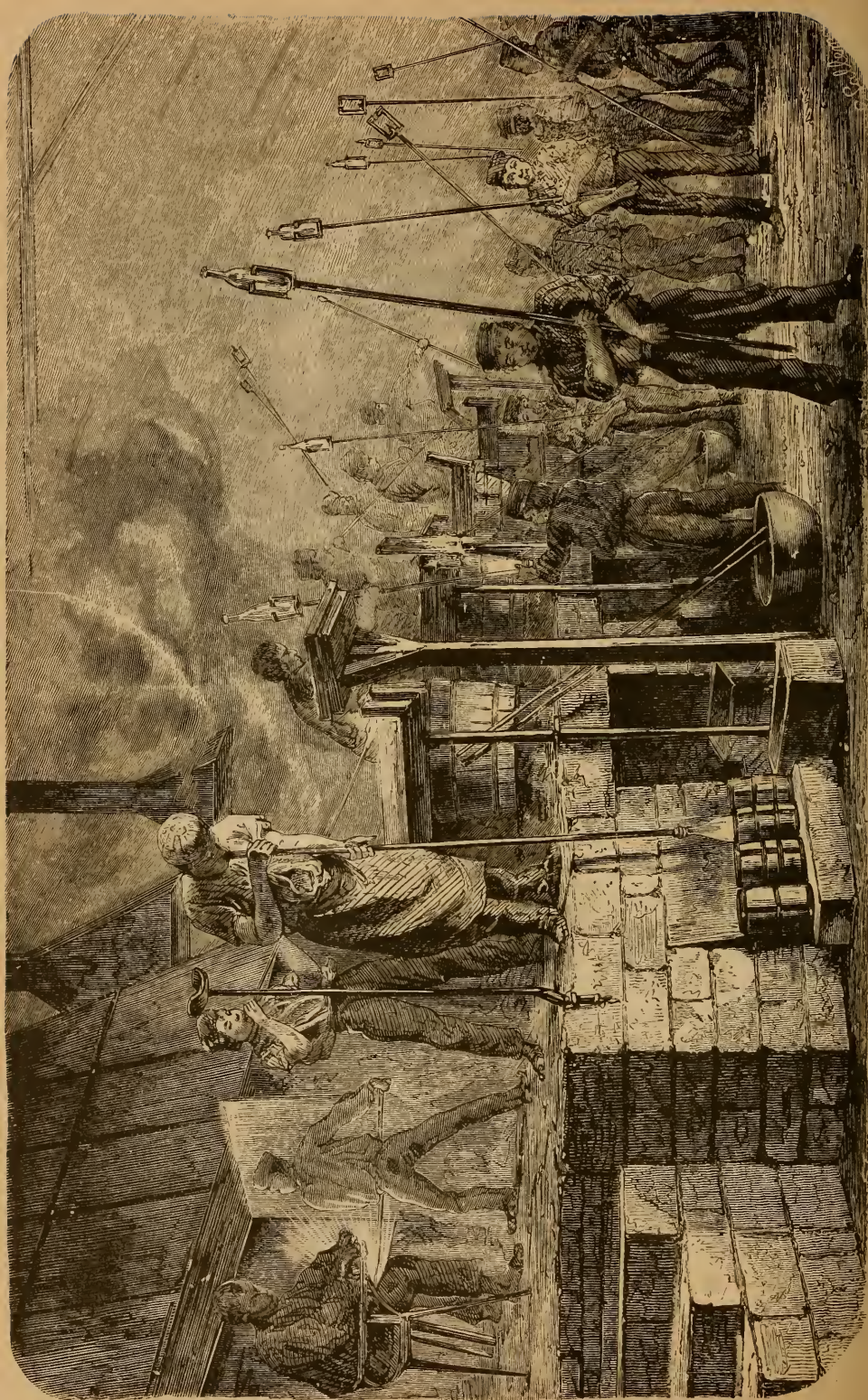
and the other eminences at the eastern side of the plain. "The general outline and many other features of this city bear a striking resemblance to the lower part of New York. Along the Monongahela the streets were laid out at right angles to each other, and extend either parallel or perpendicular to the river. The same plan was also adopted on the Alleghany side, by which arrangement the cross streets meet obliquely a few squares south of the latter stream. The space included within these limits was found insufficient to meet the requirements of the rapidly increasing population, which soon extended itself to the opposite shores. Here have sprung up several large and flourishing towns, the most important of which are Alleghany City and Manchester, situated directly opposite the junction of the Alleghany River with the Ohio, and Birmingham, on the left bank of the Monongahela. In commercial and social interests, all these are identical with the city proper, and we should do Pittsburg injustice, not to consider them as a part of the same community."

The situation of Pittsburg is exceedingly beautiful. The city lies in a plain surrounded by hills from 400 to 500 feet in height. At the base of these flow the three rivers we have named. The hills are very rich in coal, iron, and limestone. The soil is fertile to the very summit of the hills, which are covered with picturesque forests, orchards, and gardens, thus giving an additional beauty to the landscape. An English traveller writes of the scenery as follows :

"As regards scenery it is beautifully situated, being at the foot of the Alleghany Mountains, and at the junction of the two rivers Monongahela and Alleghany. Here, at the town, they come together, and form the River Ohio. Nothing can be more picturesque than the site, for the spurs of the mountains come down close round the town, and the rivers are broad and swift, and can be seen for miles from heights which may be reached in a short walk. Even the filth and wondrous blackness of the place are picturesque when looked down upon from above. The tops of the churches are visible, and some of the larger buildings may be partially traced through the thick, brown, settled smoke. But the city itself is buried in a dense cloud. The atmosphere was especially heavy when I was there, and the effect was probably increased by the general darkness of the weather. The Monongahela is crossed by a fine bridge, and on the other side the ground rises at once, almost with the rapidity of a precipice ; so that a commanding view is obtained down upon the town and the two rivers and the different bridges, from a height immediately above them. I

PITTSBURGH.





was never more in love with smoke and dirt than when I stood here and watched the darkness of night close in upon the floating soot which hovered over the house-tops of the city. I cannot say that I saw the sun set, for there was no sun. I should say that the sun never shone at Pittsburg, as foreigners who visit London in November declare that the sun never shines there."

The city is handsomely built, brick and stone being the principal materials used; but the dense smoke soon defaces the handsomest structure. In consequence of this the place has a black grimy appearance, which effectually mars the work of taste and wealth. There are many handsome residences in the eastern section. The suburbs are preferred for purposes of residence however. They are very picturesque in themselves, and are beautifully built up, and present a very marked contrast to the city in cleanliness.

The Public Buildings are among the handsomest in America. The *Court House* is situated on the summit of Grant's Hill, and is a handsome edifice of granite, of the Grecian Doric order, with a noble portico. The summit of the dome is 148 feet from the ground. The new *Custom House* is built of freestone in the Grecian style. It contains the Post Office. Besides these are several others which are worthy of notice. Some of the churches and commercial buildings are among the principal ornaments of the city. There are also 2 fine market houses, one of which contains a large public hall.

The Educational Institutions are in a flourishing condition. The public schools are numerous, and are attended by about 20,000 pupils. Besides these the city contains a number of private schools.

The Benevolent Institutions are the *Mercy Hospital*, under the charge of the Sisters of Mercy, the *United States Marine Hospital*, the *Home for the Friendless*, the *Church Home*, designed chiefly as a home for children of all denominations, the *Pittsburg Infirmary*, the *Roman Catholic Orphan Asylum* and a *House of Refuge*. In addition to these are the *Western Pennsylvania Hospital* (which has a department for the insane at Dixmont, 8 miles from the city), and the *House of Industry*, situated in Alleghany City, but really to be regarded as among the institutions of Pittsburg.

The *Western Penitentiary* of Pennsylvania is located in Alleghany City. It is an immense stone building in the Norman style.

There are about 110 churches in the city of Pittsburg, and about 30 in Alleghany City. Some of them are imposing structures and are admirably located.

Pittsburg is supplied with pure water from the Alleghany River, and is lighted with gas of an excellent quality. It is divided into 9 wards, and is governed by a Mayor and Council. It is well provided with street railways, which also connect its business centres with the suburbs on both rivers. Four fine bridges connect it with Alleghany City, and two extend across the Monongahela to Birmingham.

Alleghany City is simply an extensive suburb of Pittsburg, and is divided from it by the Alleghany River. It is well built in the main, and contains many handsome residences, being a favorite residence of the people of the greater city, as it is very much cleaner. It contains a large number of manufacturing establishments, and is a place of considerable importance. Here are located the *Western Theological Seminary of the Presbyterian Church*; the *Theological Seminary of the Associate Reformed Church*; and the *Alleghany Theological Institute*. In 1870 the population of Alleghany City was 53,181. The manufactures, etc., of the city will be treated of in connection with those of Pittsburg. Alleghany is a distinct corporation, and is governed by its own Mayor and Council.

Birmingham and *Manchester* are considerable suburbs. The former is situated on the south side of the Monongehela River, immediately opposite Pittsburg, and the latter is on the Ohio, 2 miles below the city. Mr. Geo. H. Thurston, in his *Quarterly Circular*, thus describes manufacturing Pittsburg:

"Pittsburgh is not to be seen in a day, nor yet in a week; and while the simple fact that it is a great manufacturing city is generally acknowledged, yet the details of that greatness are but little understood. Many years ago, before the iron horse had crossed the Alleghanies, while yet the transportation of the merchandise for the West was made in the old six-horse Conestoga wagons, the City of Wheeling claimed importance and coming greatness, inasmuch as that forty of those wagons had arrived in that city in one day. Since then Wheeling has grown into an active little competitor of Pittsburgh, the great parent of all western manufactures, and of which it, as well as a dozen other manufacturing towns, are off-shoots, the natural outspringing and colonization of Pittsburgh's growth. That growth has been so marked and so continuous that we have often, in the past few years, been tempted to remodel the language of Wheeling, and say: Forty miles of mills and factories every day in operation in Pittsburgh. This is no brag, but almost literally a reality, although no doubt a terse explanation of 'what Pittsburgh really is like' is rather startling to her

own citizens. The real fact is that actual measurement shows that in the limits of what is known throughout the country as Pittsburgh there are thirty-five miles of manufactories of iron, of glass, of steel, of copper, of oil, of wools, of cotton, of brass, alone, not to include manufactories in other materials, nor including any of less grade than manufactories of iron chains in iron, or plows in wood. A measurement of the ground also shows that these 35 miles of factories are so closely contiguous that were they placed in a single row each factory would have but about 400 feet of front space for its workings.

“The statistics of this statement of the extent of Pittsburgh manufacturing power are these: From the point up the south bank of the Alleghany River to the Sharpsburg bridge is 5 miles; in that distance, between the river bank and Penn street, there are 115 factories of the classes designated. From Sharpsburg bridge down the north bank of the Alleghany River to Wood’s Run is 8 miles, and in that distance there are 67 manufactories. From Temperanceville to Brownstown, up the west bank of the Monongahela River, is 4 miles, and in that distance there are 70 factories, between the river and Carson street. From the Monongahela bridge up the course of the Monongahela River, to a point beyond Brownstown, is $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and in that distance, between Carson street and the hill, there are 43 manufactories. From the Point to the Copper Works, on the east bank of the Monongahela, is $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and in that distance there are 55 factories. From Federal street out Ohio street to Duquesne Borough is $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and in that distance there are 15 factories. On Butcher’s Run, in a distance of 2 miles, there are 32 factories. Along Liberty street, from the Point to the Outer Depot, there are 19 factories in a distance of 2 miles. On 2d and 3d avenues, from Liberty to Try streets, a distance of 1 mile, there are 18 factories. Along Pennsylvania avenue to Soho street, a distance of $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles, there are 17 factories. Between Ohio street and the base of the hill there are, in a distance of 3 miles, 24 factories.

“Thus in a distance of $35\frac{1}{2}$ miles of streets, there are 475 manufactories of iron, of steel, of cotton, of oil, of glass, of copper, occupying an average of less than 400 feet front each.

“Were these factories placed in a single row, it will be easily seen how compactly they would be crowded, each occupying no more territory than was actually needed. They would be a continuous row, without interval, and show that in reality there are in Pittsburgh absolutely over 35 continuous miles of manufactures in daily operation.

"Pittsburghers, then, in answer to the question, what is Pittsburgh like? can readily answer—Like a row 35 miles long of factories twisted up into a compact tangle all belching forth smoke, all glowing with fires, all swarming with workmen, all echoing with the clank of machinery. The territory over and around which this immense chain of machinery is strung, though all popularly known as Pittsburgh, is composed of the city of Pittsburgh and the city of Alleghany, the boroughs of Temperanceville, West Pittsburgh, Monongahela, South Pittsburgh, Birmingham, and East Birmingham. The whole forms, however, one compact city, in effect, divided only by the two rivers, which, running through the district, are spanned by numerous bridges, over several of which street railroads link, with their almost continuous lines of cars, in one mass, a population in this hive of industry numbering 200,000 souls. Although the name of Pittsburgh, and the term Pittsburgh manufactures, have been 'as household words' throughout the West, since the days of the earlier Western settlements, still its growth has been so equable with that of the West that but few realize the real magnitude of the community.

"Called into existence by no sudden speculative rush of emigration, drawn primarily by some adventitious circumstances, Pittsburgh has accumulated its population through the course of years from the solid advantages each passing year renders but more apparent. In all past years Pittsburgh has been a point of departure for much of the emigration to the West, a position the city still maintains. Thus naturally Pittsburgh became a supply point for the West, and the West the chief market for her productions. The increase of the population of the West has told with unerring certainty upon the business and the population of Pittsburgh.

"In 1800, the population of the States through and along which Pittsburgh enjoys river navigation, was 385,667, and that of Pittsburgh was 1565, or a little over $\frac{1}{10}$ per cent., while the value of her business was, in 1803, but \$350,000, or equal to $92\frac{2}{10}$ per cent. of the population of the West.

"In 1810, there were in the same western territory 1,057,531 inhabitants, and in Pittsburgh 4876, or $\frac{2}{10}$ per cent., being $\frac{1}{10}$ over the necessary increase to preserve the ratio of our increase in the city's population, in proportion to that of the West. The amount of business of the city was then estimated at \$1,000,000, equal to 93 per cent. on the population of the territory indicated.

"In 1830, there were 3,331,298 inhabitants in the section of the

Union before indicated, and in Pittsburgh there were 16,988, still showing the growth of the city was not in the same ratio of increase as the West, as in past periods, but a gain of $\frac{1}{16}$ over what was necessary.

"In 1840, there were 5,173,949 inhabitants in the western and southwestern States, and the population of Pittsburgh was 38,931, being $\frac{1}{250}$ per cent., showing not only the maintenance of the progressive ratio, but a gain over it of $\frac{5}{100}$ per cent.

"In 1836, the business of the city was estimated at \$31,146,550, being something over 600 per cent., showing the business of the city had not only kept pace with the population of the West, as shown in previous ratios, but had compounded thereon 500 per cent.

"In 1860, the population of the Mississippi basin and the western lake slopes (Pittsburgh's market), was shown by the census of that year to be in round numbers 17,000,000. At that date the business of Pittsburgh was estimated at over \$100,000,000, showing the ratio of business on the population of the West, attained in 1836 and 1840, was still maintained.

"The population of the district considered and claimed as Pittsburgh, being the compact mass of population between and on both sides of the rivers to the city limits, was estimated at 140,000 in that year, showing that in population as well as business the ratio of Pittsburgh's prosperity with the wealth of the West continues to be maintained. What the population of the West may be as shown by the census of 1870 we know not, but those who know the great growth of Pittsburgh in the last nine years, the vast increase in her rolling-mills and in her workshops, cannot doubt that the ratio of increase is still maintained. In the great swell of the population of the West, Pittsburgh seems not only to keep pace and to hold her trade, but that trade, like her population, seems to increase in arithmetical proportion with the growth of the country. Considering the competitors which have arisen for the market Pittsburgh supplies with her staples, this is worthy especial note as indicative of a natural force in her position and her resources not to be lost sight of in contemplating her future.

"The force of Pittsburgh's position is seen at a glance. Distant only 300 to 400 miles from three of the greatest sea-board cities of the Union; but 200 miles from the great chain of inland seas, and reaching in all directions by continuous river navigation an area of country 1200 by 960 geographical miles, she is at the same time the

key point of a railway route nearer by 40 miles from New York to the West than any now constructed. Situated in the heart of a bituminous coal formation of the Appalachian field, and equally advantageously located as to deposits of iron ore, her geographical relations to the staples for manufacturing are unequalled. She stands in a geographical centre from which a circle with a radius of 400 miles embraces Pennsylvania, New York, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Delaware, New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, Ohio, North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, Indiana, Michigan, Canada, parts of Illinois and South Carolina. This circle embraces every variety of climate, and nearly, if not quite all the staples of the United States and its valuable manufacturing minerals, over which she holds the magician's wand in her unequalled supply of fuel. For 'coal,' says *Vischers*, 'is the indispensable aliment of industry. It is to industry what oxygen is to the lungs—water to the plant—nourishment to the animal.'

"The statistics of the coal by which Pittsburgh is surrounded shows how inexhaustible is this element of her force and her progress. The extent of the bituminous coal fields by which Pittsburgh is surrounded is equal to 8,600,000 square acres. The amount of coal contained in that area it is difficult to estimate. It has been stated that the upper seam, rating it at 8 feet, contains 53,516,430,000 tons, which at \$2 per ton, or a little over 7 cents per bushel, would be worth \$107,032,860,000—a sum which, could it be realized, would pay the national debt thirty times. Of course although centuries will not see it taken from the earth, the figures show what a mine of wealth Pittsburgh has to draw from; and how mighty is the magnet she possesses to attract to her boundaries minerals and staples of all the States, population and wealth. At the present time the coal trade of the city amounts to about \$10,000,000 annually, and there are in the vicinity of Pittsburgh 103 collieries; the value of lands, houses, improvements, cars, etc., amounts to about \$11,000,000. The amount of coal mined from these collieries in 1864 was 48,462,966 bushels, of which nearly 30,000,000 bushels were exported down the Ohio River alone.

"But not in coal alone is her strength shown. In those things which coal enables her busy artizans to produce, is her power equally apparent. As nearly as can be ascertained, one-half of the glass factories in the United States are located at Pittsburgh, where there are 40 firms engaged in the manufacture of glass, who run 60 factories producing the various descriptions of green, window, flint, and lime

glass, employing over 4000 workmen, and producing between four and five millions worth of glass.

“In iron and steel, Pittsburgh claims and maintains to be the great market of the country. The exact money value of this great trade has always been difficult to arrive at. Much of the iron is shipped by rail to various points, and much by river. By figures we have at command of the shipments of plate, bar, sheet, and rod iron and steel from Pittsburgh in the year 1865, it would seem that there were exported, *by rail alone*, to 24 different States, over 143,000 tons, and 180,000 kegs of nails to 20 different States. These railroad exportations, it must not be forgotten, are not probably half the manufacture. That of castings there were shipped by rail alone 5,143,008 pounds in 1864, to 22 different States; and that by one railroad alone there were received in 1864, into the city, 107,000 tons of pig-iron and blooms, exclusive of the yield of 6 or 8 furnaces running in the city of Pittsburgh, or the imports by river and other railroads. It is estimated that of shipments made from Pittsburgh, at least as much is sent by river as by rail. There are over 30 iron rolling-mills in Pittsburgh, 6 steel mills, and between 50 and 60 iron founderies. These figures but feebly indicate the full extent of the great iron and steel trade of the city, of which the sales alone of articles made of iron subject to tax, made and returned to the city, was from March, 1865, to March, 1866, over \$27,000,000.

“Oil is another great staple, and there are in Pittsburgh 58 refineries, in which is invested a capital of nearly \$8,000,000 in buildings and machinery; and in the tanks and barges necessary to the carrying on of the business, nearly \$6,000,000 more. The oil trade of the city for the 5 years from January, 1863, to January, 1868, amounted to about \$56,000,000, or an average of about \$11,000,000 annually.

“Other branches of Pittsburgh manufactures might be cited to show its force and solidity, but enough has been stated to partially show what Pittsburgh is like. To show that she is like a great city of nearly 200,000 population; that she is a great arsenal for the supply of manufactured articles; that she grows with the growth, and increases in wealth with the prosperity of the West. Although she has apparently grown but slowly, yet she has grown like the oak, and but counts her infancy in the years in which other cities spring and mature; and she stands like a sooty giant astride the head waters of the Ohio, rejoicing in the lusty strength of her fresh youth, while her powerful servant, the mighty Geni of the Mine, throughout the waters

of the Ohio, along the shores of the Father of Waters, around the borders of the great lakes, on either hand of the pathway of the iron horse, athwart the Western prairies, proclaims her the dusky Queen of Industry, and commands homage to her iron sceptre in three-fourths of the States of the Union."

Its very location has placed an enormous trade in the hands of Pittsburg. Lying at the head of the Ohio River, it has water communication with every town on the navigable portion of the Ohio, the Mississippi, and the Missouri rivers and their tributaries. Being one of the principal railway centres of the West, it has railway connections with all parts of the Union. The principal harbor is furnished by the Monongahela River, which has a greater depth of water than the Alleghany. The Ohio is navigable to the confluence of those streams for boats of light draught, except at infrequent periods of very great dryness. The boats are generally built in such a manner as to adapt them to the lowest stages of water. Large side-wheel steamers also navigate the Ohio during the season of high water. By means of these steamers, a heavy trade is maintained with the States along the rivers we have mentioned. Pittsburg thus controls about 12,000 miles of water transportation, and can deliver its products without breaking bulk in over 400 counties of 17 States. In 1865, there were 159 steamboats owned in the city. The number is much greater at present. Besides these, hundreds of steamers, owned in other States, trade with Pittsburg.

In 1870, the population of Pittsburg was 86,235.

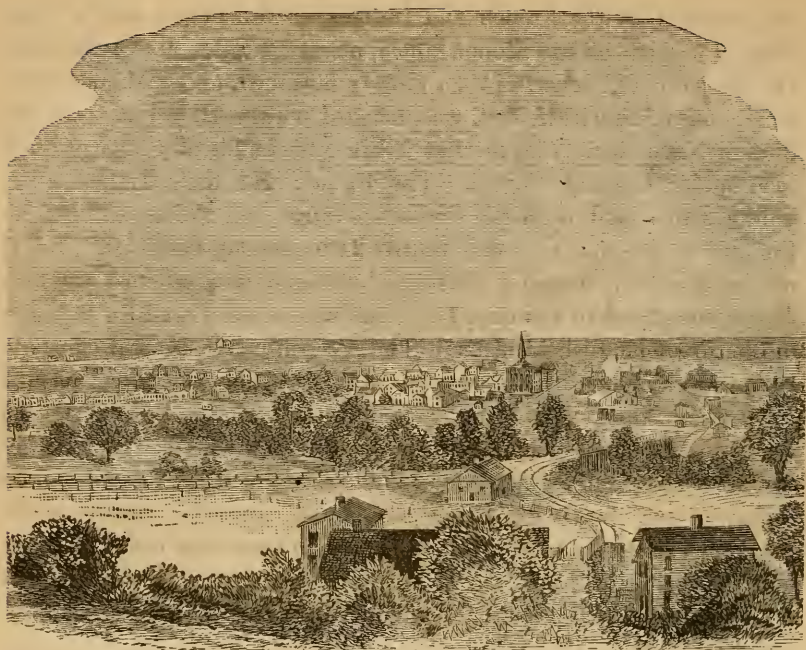
In February, 1754, a party of English settlers built a stockade and established a trading post on the point of land lying between the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers at their confluence, on the site of the present city of Pittsburg. In April, they were attacked and driven away by the French, who claimed the country. The conquerors erected a fort on the spot, and called it Duquesne, in honor of the Governor of Canada. This fort at once became the centre of all the military operations of the French in this part of the country. To the French claim, which was based upon their discovery of the region, the English advanced a counter claim based upon a charter from the Crown, strengthened by a treaty with the Iroquois. The importance attached to the position by the French made it a matter of the greatest moment to the English to obtain possession of it. General Braddock was sent, in 1755, at the head of the largest force that had ever crossed the mountains, to recapture it. He was attacked

and defeated by the French and Indians, on the 9th of July of that year, at a point on the Monongahela, about 12 miles above the fort. On the 15th of October, 1758, a force of 800 men, under Major Grant, advancing to attack the fort, was defeated with terrible loss. On the 25th of November, 1758, the fort fell into the hands of a force of 6000 men under General Forbes. The French and their Indian allies vainly endeavored to check Forbes' advance, and failing in this, set the fort on fire and retreated on the 24th, the day before the arrival of the English. General Forbes rebuilt and strengthened the fort. It was completed in January, 1759, and was called Fort Pitt, in honor of the great English Minister. The French made several efforts to recapture it, but without success. In 1764, the settlement of the town began, the houses being erected in the vicinity of the fort. In 1772, the fort was abandoned by the English, who had no further use for it as a military post. The site was claimed by Virginia under a charter from James I. Pennsylvania also claimed it under a charter from Charles II. Virginia prepared to assert her claim by force, and on the 11th of August, 1775, threw a company of soldiers into Fort Pitt. The Revolution made this a minor question, however, and in August, 1779, Commissioners, appointed by the two provinces, met in Baltimore, and agreed upon the existing boundary which was ratified by their respective Legislatures. The excise troubles of 1791-4, made Pittsburg the scene of considerable violence. In 1845, a fire destroyed the entire business portion of the city, causing a loss of \$5,000,000. Pittsburg was incorporated as a borough in 1804, and as a city in 1816.

SCRANTON,

The fourth city in population in the State, is situated in Luzerne county, on the left bank of the Lackawanna River, 137 miles northeast of Harrisburg. It is the terminus of several railway lines leading direct to Harrisburg, Philadelphia, and New York, and the centre of an immense coal trade. Iron ore is found in large quantities in the vicinity, and the city is largely engaged in the manufacture of iron wares of various kinds. The principal sources of its prosperity, however, are the rich coal mines which lie near the town. These mines are worked by the Pennsylvania and other companies, and employ large numbers of miners of all nationalities.

Scranton is a well built town, containing about 4 public schools, 11 churches, and 2 newspaper offices. It is prettily situated, and is



SCRANTON.

improving in its architectural pretensions. During the last few years, the population has increased with unprecedented rapidity. In 1860, the city contained 9223 inhabitants. In 1870, the population was 35,762. If Pittsburg and Alleghany are regarded as one city, Scranton is the third city in Pennsylvania.

READING,

The fifth city of the State, is situated in Berks county, on the left or east bank of the Schuylkill River, 52 miles east of Harrisburg, and 52 miles northwest of Philadelphia, with both of which places it is connected by railways. It has railway connections with other parts of the State. The Schuylkill Canal brings it in direct communication with the entire Schuylkill region. The river is here crossed by two bridges, one of which is 600 feet long.

The city is beautifully situated on a sloping plain, which rises from the river, and is terminated on the east by an eminence called Penn's Mount. The city is well built, brick being the principal material.



EASTON.

EASTON,

In Northampton county, on the right bank of the Delaware River, at the junction with that stream of the Lehigh River and Bushkill Creek, is a flourishing city. It is regularly laid out in rectangular blocks, is well built, and is lighted with gas and supplied with pure water. It is finely situated in the midst of some of the most beautiful scenery of the State, and is in many respects one of the most picturesque cities in America. The Lehigh and Delaware are here crossed by fine bridges. The city possesses good water-power, and is largely engaged in manufactures. Flour, oil, iron, lumber, cotton goods, and fire-arms are the principal articles produced. The city is connected with New York, Philadelphia, and all parts of the State, by railway. By means of these and the Delaware, Lehigh, and Morris Canals, large quantities of coal, lumber, and grain are received and shipped to the principal markets of the country. Easton is one of the most enterprising places in Pennsylvania, and is growing rapidly in population and importance. It contains the county buildings, several handsome churches, and several excellent schools. It is the seat of *Lafayette College*, a flourishing institution. Five newspapers

are published here. The city is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870 the population was 10,987.

Easton was laid out in 1738, and was incorporated as a town in 1789. The surrounding country is very beautiful, and is rich in iron ore and limestone.

MISCELLANIES.

OLD TIME CUSTOMS IN PHILADELPHIA.

Mr. Watson, in his "Historic Tales of the Olden Time," gives some interesting accounts of the customs of the people of Philadelphia prior to the Revolution. He says:

They were distinguished for a frank and generous hospitality. They made many entertainments, but they were devoid of glare and show, and always abundant and good.

Dr. Franklin, describing the state of the people about the year 1752, says they were all loyal, and submitted willingly to the government of the Crown, or paid for defence cheerfully. "They were led by a thread. They not only had a respect, but an affection, for Great Britain, for its laws, its customs, and its manners, and even a fondness for its fashions,—not yet subsided. Natives of Great Britain were always treated with particular regard; and to be 'an Old England man' gave a kind of rank and respect among us."

The old people all testify that the young of their youth were much more reserved, and held under much more restraint in the presence of their elders and parents, than now. Bashfulness and modesty in the young were then regarded as virtues; and the present freedom before the aged was not then countenanced. Young lovers then listened and took sidelong glances, when before their parents or elders.

It was the custom for the younger part of the family, and especially of the female part, to dress up neatly towards the close of the day, and sit in the street porch. Sometimes they would go from porch to porch in neighborhoods, and sit and converse. Tea was such a rarity that it was measured out for the teapots in small hand-scales. Afternoon visits were not made, as now, *at night*, but at so early an hour as to permit matrons to go home and see their children put to bed.

Before the Revolution, no hired man or woman wore any shoes so fine as calf-skin; coarse neats leather was their every day wear. Men and women then hired by the year—men got £16 to £20, and a servant woman £8 to £10. Out of that it was their custom to lay up money, to buy before their marriage a bed and bedding, silver teaspoons, and a spinning wheel, etc.

Among the rough amusements of men might be mentioned shooting, fishing, and sailing parties. These were frequent, as also mutton clubs, fishing, house and country parties were much indulged in by respectable citizens. Great sociability prevailed among all classes of citizens, until the strife with Great Britain sent "every man to his own ways;" then discord and acrimony ensued, and the previously general friendly intercourse never returned. We afterwards grew another and enlarged people.

Our girls in the daytime used to attend the work of the family, and in the even-

ing paraded in their porch at the door. Some of them, however, even then, read novels, and walked without business abroad. Those who had not housework employed themselves in their accomplishments, such as making shell-work, cornucopias, working of pocket books, with a close, strong-stitched needlework.

The ladies, seventy years ago, were much accustomed to ride on horseback for recreation. It was quite common to see genteel ladies riding, with jockey caps.

Boarding schools for girls were not known in Philadelphia until about the time of the Revolution, nor had they any separate schools for writing and ciphering, but were taught in common with boys. The ornamental parts of female education were bestowed, but geography and grammar were never regarded for them, until a certain Mr. Horton—thanks to his name—proposed to teach those sciences to young ladies. Similar institutions afterwards grew into favor.

It was usual, in the gazettes of 1760 to 1770, to announce marriages in words like these, to wit: "Miss Betsey Lawrence, or Miss Elizabeth Caton, a most agreeable lady, with a large or a handsome fortune."

In still earlier times, marriages had to be promulged by affixing the intentions of the parties on the court house or meeting house door; and when the act was solemnized, they should have at least twelve subscribing witnesses. The act which imposed it was passed in 1700.

The wedding entertainments of olden times were very expensive and harassing to the wedded. The house of the parent would be filled with company to dine; the same company would stay to tea and to supper. For two days, punch was dealt out in profusion. The gentlemen saw the groom on the first floor, and then ascended to the second, where they saw the bride; there every gentleman, even to 100 in a day, kissed her. Even the plain Friends submitted to these things. I have known rich families which had 120 persons to dine—the same who had signed their certificate of marriage at the monthly meeting; these also partook of tea and supper. As they formally passed the meeting twice, the same entertainment was repeated. Two days the male friends would call and take punch, and all would kiss the bride. Besides this, the married pair, for two entire weeks, saw large tea parties at their home, having in attendance every night the groomsman and bridesmaids. To avoid expense and trouble, Friends have since made it sufficient to pass but one meeting. When these marriage entertainments were made, it was expected also that punch, cakes, and meats should be sent out very generally in the neighborhood, even to those who were not visitors in the family.

Of articles and rules of diet, so far as it differed from ours, in the earliest time, we may mention coffee, as a beverage, was used but rarely; chocolate for morning and evening, or thickened milk for children. Cookery in general was plainer than now. In the country, morning and evening repasts were generally made of milk, having bread boiled therein, or else thickened with pop-robins—things made up of flour and eggs into a batter, and so dropped in with the boiling milk.

A lady of my acquaintance thus describes the recollections of her early days, preceding the war of Independence: Dress was discriminate and appropriate, both as regarded the season and the character of the wearer. Ladies never wore the same dresses at work and on visits; they sat at home, or went out in the morning, in chintz; brocades, satins, and mantuas were reserved for evening or dinner parties. Robes or negligees, as they were called, were always worn in

full dress. Muslins were not worn at all. Little Misses at a dancing school ball (for these were almost the only fetes that fell to their share in the days of discrimination) were dressed in frocks of lawn or cambric. Worsted was then thought dress enough for common days.

As a universal fact, it may be remarked, that no other color than black was ever made for ladies' bonnets, when formed of silk or satin. Fancy colors were unknown, and white bonnets of silk fabric had never been seen. The first innovation remembered was the bringing in of blue bonnets.

The time was when the plainest woman among the Friends (now so averse to fancy colors) wore their colored silk aprons, say, of green, or blue, etc. This was at a time when the gay wore white aprons. In time, white aprons were disused by the gentry, and then the Friends left off their colored ones and used the white. The same old ladies among Friends, whom we can remember as wearers of the white aprons, wore also large white beaver hats, with scarcely the sign of a crown, and which was indeed confined to the head by silk cords tied under the chin. Eight dollars would buy such a hat, when beaver fur was more plentiful. They lasted such ladies almost a whole life of wear. They showed no fur.

Very decent women went abroad and to churches with check aprons. I have seen those who kept their coach in my time to bear them to church, who told me they went on foot, with a check apron, to the Arch street Presbyterian meeting in their youth. Then all hired women wore short gowns and petticoats of domestic fabric, and could be instantly known as such whenever seen abroad.

In the former days, it was not uncommon to see aged persons with large silver buttons to their coats and vests—it was a mark of wealth. Some had the initials of their names engraved on each button. Sometimes they were made out of real quarter dollars, with the coinage impression still retained—these were used for the coats, and the elevenpenny-bits for vests and breeches. My father wore an entire suit decorated with conch-shell buttons, silver mounted.

The articles of dress in those early times would at the present day not be recognized by their names. The following is an advertisement for the year 1745 :

"For sale. Tandems, isinghams, nuns, bag and gulix (these all mean shirting), huckabacks (a figured worsted for women's gowns), quilted humhums, turktees, grassetts, single allopeens, children's stays, jumps and bodice, whalebone and iron busks, men's new market caps, silk and worsted wove patterns for breeches, allibanes, dickmansoy, cushloes, chuckloes, cuttanees, crimson dannador, chain'd soosees, lemonees, byrampauts, morce, naffermamy, saxlingham, prunelloe, barragons, druggets, florettas," etc., etc.

It was very common for children and working women to wear beads made of Job's tears, a berry of a shrub. They used them for economy, and said it prevented several diseases.

Until the period of the Revolution, every person who wore a fur hat, had it always of entire beaver. Every apprentice, at receiving his "freedom," received a real beaver at a cost of six dollars. Their every day hats were of wool, called felts. What were called roram hats, being fur faced upon wool felts, came into use directly after the peace, and excited much surprise, as to the invention. Gentlemen's hats, of entire beaver, universally cost eight dollars.

The use of lace veils to ladies' faces is but a modern fashion, not of more than twenty to thirty years standing. Now they wear black, white, and green—the last only lately introduced as a summer veil. In olden time, none wore a veil but as a mark and badge of mourning, and then, as now, of crape in preference to lace.

Ancient ladies remembered a time, in their early life, when the ladies wore blue stockings and party-colored clocks of very striking appearance. May not that fashion, as an extreme ton of the upper circle in life, explain the adoption of the term, "Blue-socking Club?" I have seen, in possession of Samuel Coates, Esq., the wedding silk stockings of his grandmother, of a lively green, and great red clocks. My grandmother wore, in winter, very fine worsted green stockings, with a gay clock surmounted with a bunch of tulips.

The late President, Thomas Jefferson, when in Philadelphia, on his first mission abroad, was dressed in the garb of his day after this manner, to wit: he wore a long waisted white cloth coat, scarlet breeches and vest, a cocked hat, with a black cockade.

Even spectacles, permanently useful as they are, have been subject to the caprice of fashion. Now they are occasionally seen of gold—a thing I never saw in my youth; neither did I ever see one young man with spectacles—now so numerous. A purblind or half-sighted youth then deemed it his positive disparagement to be so regarded. Such would have rather run against a street post six times a day than have been seen with them. Indeed, in early olden time they had not the art of using temple spectacles. Old Mrs. Shoemaker, who died in 1825, at the age of 95, said she had lived many years in Philadelphia before she ever saw temple spectacles—a name then given as a new discovery, but now so common as to have lost its distinctive character. In her early years, the only spectacles she ever saw were called "bridge spectacles," without any side supporters, and held on the nose solely by nipping the bridge of the nose.

My grandmother wore a black velvet mask in winter, with a silver mouth-piece to keep it on, by retaining it in the mouth. I have been told that green ones have been used in summer for some few ladies, for riding in the sun on horseback.

Ladies formerly wore cloaks as their chief overcoats; they were used with some changes of form under the successive names of roquelaurs, capuchins, and cardinals.

In Mrs. Shoemaker's time, above named, they had no knowledge of umbrellas to keep off rain, but she had seen some few use kitisols—an article as small as present parasols now. They were entirely to keep off rain from ladies. They were of oiled muslin, and of various colors. They were imported from India by way of England. They must, however, have been but rare, as they never appear in any advertisements.

Dr. Chancellor and the Rev. Mr. Duche were the first persons in Philadelphia who were seen to wear umbrellas to keep off the rain. They were of oiled linen, very coarse and clumsy, with ratan sticks. Before their time, some doctors and ministers used an oiled linen cape, hooked round their shoulders, looking not unlike the big coat capes now in use, and then called a roquelaur. It was only used for severe storms.

About the year 1771, the first efforts were made in Philadelphia to introduce the use of umbrellas in summer, as a defence from the sun. They were then scouted in the public gazettes as a ridiculous effeminacy. On the other hand, the physicians recommended them, to keep of vertigoes, epilepsies, sore eyes, fevers, etc. Finally, as the doctors were the chief patrons, Doctor Chancellor and Doctor Morgan, with the Rev. Parson Duche, were the first persons who had the hardihood to be so singular as to wear umbrellas in sunshine. Mr. Bingham, when he returned from the West Indies, where he had amassed a great fortune

in the Revolution, appeared abroad in the streets attended by a mulatto boy bearing his umbrella. But his example did not take, and he desisted from its use.

HOW GENERAL BRADDOCK WAS KILLED.

There had long existed a tradition that Braddock was killed by one of his own men, and more recent developments leave little or no doubt of the fact. A recent writer says :

“ When my father was removing with his family to the west, one of the Fausetts kept a public house to the eastward from, and near where Uniontown now stands, as the county seat of Fayette, Pa. This man's house we lodged in about the 10th of October, 1781, twenty-six years and a few months after Braddock's defeat, and there it was made anything but a secret that one of the family dealt the death-blow to the British general.

“ Thirteen years afterwards I met Thomas Fausett in Fayette county, then, as he told he, in his 70th year. To him I put the plain question, and received a plain reply, ‘ *I did shoot him!* ’ He then went on to insist, that, by doing so, he contributed to save what was left of the army. In brief, in my youth, I never heard the fact either doubted or blamed, that Fausett shot Braddock.”

Hon. Andrew Stewart, of Uniontown, says he knew, and often conversed with Tom Fausett, who did not hesitate to avow, in the presence of his friends, that he shot General Braddock. Fausett was a man of gigantic frame, of uncivilized half-savage propensities, and spent most of his life among the mountains, as a hermit, living on the game which he killed. He would occasionally come into town, and get drunk. Sometimes he would repel inquiries into the affair of Braddock's death, by putting his fingers to his lips and uttering a sort of buzzing sound ; at others, he would burst into tears, and appear greatly agitated by conflicting passions.

In spite of Braddock's silly order, that the troops should not protect themselves behind trees, Joseph Fausett had taken such a position, when Braddock rode up, in a passion, and struck him down with his sword. Tom Fausett, who was but a short distance from his brother, saw the whole transaction, and immediately drew up his rifle and shot Braddock through the lungs, partly in revenge for the outrage upon his brother, and partly, as he always alleged, to get the general out of the way, and thus save the remainder of the gallant band, who had been sacrificed to his obstinacy and want of experience in frontier warfare.

THE MASSACRE OF WYOMING.

The year 1776 commenced a new era in the history of the American colonies, and in some measure gave peace to Wyoming in the midst of war, by removing from Pennsylvania the authority of the proprietaries, and royal governors. During this interval of comparative repose, three companies of troops were enlisted at Wyoming for the service of the united colonies. They were attached to the Connecticut line, and made part of the troops of that colony. At this time, a full enumeration of the population at Wyoming was made, and the settlements were found to contain 5000 souls. Their militia at the same time amounted to 1100 men, capable of bearing arms ; and of this force about 300 enlisted to serve against the common enemy. After their march, the settlers continued to guard themselves with increased vigilance. Regular garrison duty was

performed in the several fortifications by classes of the militia in successive order ; in addition to which, a patrol called the "Scout," was established through the valley, which was on duty night and day in succession, exploring all thickets and unfrequented grounds, in search of any lurking enemy which might have come to disturb their peace, or spy out the land.

The frontier settlements of the different colonies were at this time continually harassed by incursive parties of British troops and Indians from Canada ; and the surrender of General Burgoyne, which took place in October, 1777, did not produce an abandonment of the system. Early in the spring of 1778, a force consisting of about 800 men, and composed of British regulars, Tories, and Indians, under the command of Colonel John Butler, assembled at Niagara, and marched to the reduction of Wyoming. The Indians were in number about 400, and were commanded by Brandt, a warlike chief of mixed blood. At Tioga Point, these troops procured boats and rafts of wood, upon which they floated down the Susquebanna until they arrived about 20 miles above Wyoming Fort. Here they landed, the latter part of June. On the evening of the 2d of July, they took possession of a fort which the settlers had built on the bank of the river, about a mile below the head of the valley, called Fort Wintermoot. From this fort, which the British commander made his headquarters, were sent small scouting parties in search of plunder and provisions, as well as to ascertain the situation and strength of the force which remained for the defence of the settlement.

Upon the arrival of these troops, the settlers collected their principal forces in a fortification situated on the west bank of the river, at a large eddy in the stream below Monockonock Island, and about 3 miles above Wyoming Fort. This fort had been built and defended by 40 of the settlers in that vicinity, and had thence obtained the name of "Forty Fort." The garrison, now assembled here, consisted of the most active of the settlers, and amounted to 368 men, a small party being left in the other forts for the protection of the settlement in their immediate vicinity. About a month previous, messengers had been sent from the settlers to the continental army, to inform the commander-in-chief of their situation, and to request that a detachment might be sent to their assistance.

On the morning of the 3d of July, the officers of the garrison at Forty Fort held a council to determine on the propriety of marching from the fort, and attacking the enemy wherever found. The debates in this council of war are said to have been conducted with much warmth and animation. The ultimate determination was one on which depended the lives of the garrison, and the safety of the settlements. On one side it was contended that their enemies were daily increasing in numbers—that they would plunder the settlements of all kinds of property, and would accumulate the means of carrying on the war, while they themselves would become weaker ; that the harvest would soon be ripe, and would be gathered or destroyed by their enemies, and all their means of sustenance during the succeeding winter would fail ; that probably all their messengers were killed, and as there had been more than sufficient time, and no assistance arrived, they would probably receive none, and consequently now was the proper time to make the attack. On the other side it was argued, that probably some or all of the messengers may have arrived at headquarters, but that the absence of the commander-in-chief may have produced delay ; that one or two weeks more may bring the desired assistance, and that to attack the enemy, superior as they were in number, out of the limits of their own fort, would produce almost certain destruction to the settlement and themselves, and captivity and slavery—perhaps

torture, to their wives and children. While these debates were progressing, five men belonging to Wyoming, but, who, at that time, held commissions in the continental army, arrived at the fort. They had received information that a force from Niagara had marched to destroy the settlements on the Susquehanna, and being unable to bring with them any reinforcements, they resigned their appointments and hastened immediately to the protection of their families. They had heard nothing of the messengers, neither could they give any certain information as to the probability of relief.

The prospects of receiving assistance became now extremely uncertain. The advocates for the attack prevailed in the council; and at dawn of day, on the morning of the 3d of July, the garrison left the fort, and began their march up the river, under the command of Colonel Zebulon Butler. Having proceeded about 2 miles, the troops halted for the purpose of detaching a reconnoitering party to ascertain the situation of the enemy. Colonel Butler rode along the flank of the column to invite volunteers for this service. Abraham Pike and an Irish companion offered their services, and they being the only volunteers, were accepted. The scout found the enemy in possession of Fort Wintermoot, and occupying huts immediately around it, carousing in supposed security; but on their return to the advancing column, they met two strolling Indians, by whom they were fired upon, and upon whom they immediately returned the fire without effect. The settlers hastened their march for the attack, but the Indians had given the alarm, and the advancing troops found the enemy already formed in order of battle a small distance from their fort, with their right flank covered by a swamp, and their left resting upon the bank of the river. The settlers immediately displayed their column, and formed in corresponding order; but as the enemy was much superior in numbers, their line was much more extensive. Pine woods and bushes covered the battle-ground; in consequence of which, the movements of the troops could not be so quickly discovered, nor so well ascertained. Colonel Zebulon Butler had command of the right, and was opposed by Colonel John Butler at the head of the British troops on the left. Colonel Nathan Denison commanded the left, opposed by Brandt at the head of his Indians on the enemy's right. The battle commenced at about 40 rods distant, and continued about 15 minutes through the woods and brush without much execution. At this time, Brandt, with his Indians, having penetrated the swamp, turned the left flank of the settlers' line, and with a terrible war-whoop and savage yell, made a desperate charge upon the troops composing that wing, which fell very fast, and were immediately cut to pieces with the tomahawk. Colonel Denison having ascertained that the savages were gaining the rear of the left, gave orders for that wing to *fall back*, in order to prevent being surrounded by the enemy. At the same time, Colonel John Butler finding that the line of the settlers did not extend as far towards the river as his own, doubled that end of his line, which was protected by a thick growth of brushwood, and having brought a party of his British regulars to act in column upon that wing, threw Colonel Zebulon Butler's troops into some confusion.

The orders of Colonel Denison for his troops to *fall back* having been understood by many to mean a *retreat*, the troops began to retire in much disorder. The savages considered this as a flight, and commenced a most hideous yell, rushed forward with their rifles and tomahawks, and cut the retiring line to pieces. In this situation, it was found impossible to rally and form the troops, and the rout became general throughout the line. The settlers fled in every direc-

tion, and were instantly followed by the savages, who killed or took prisoners whoever came within their reach. Some succeeded in reaching the river, and escaped by swimming across; others fled to the mountains; and the savages, too much occupied with plunder, gave up the pursuit. When the first intelligence was received in the village of Wilkesbarre that the battle was lost, the women fled with their children to the mountains, on their way to the settlements on the Delaware, where many of them at length arrived after suffering extreme hardships. Many of the men who escaped the battle, together with their women and children, who were unable to travel on foot, took refuge in Wyoming Fort, and on the following day, July 4th, Butler and Brandt, at the head of their combined forces, appeared before the fort and demanded its surrender. The garrison being without any efficient means of defence, surrendered the fort on articles of capitulation, by which the settlers, upon giving up their fortifications, prisoners, and military stores, were to remain in the country unmolested, provided they did not again take up arms.

In this battle, about 300 of the settlers were killed or missing, and from a great part of whom no intelligence was ever afterwards received. The officers killed were, 1 lieutenant-colonel, 1 major, 10 captains, 6 lieutenants, and 2 ensigns.

A considerable number of the inhabitants of the different settlements on the Susquehanna, who, from their attachment to the British cause, were denominated *tories*, joined the British and savage troops previous to the battle, and exhibited instances of the most savage barbarity in the manner in which they carried on the war against their former neighbors and friends. One instance may serve to show the desperate feelings which those times produced. A short distance below the battle-ground, there is a large island in the river called "Monockonock Island." Several of the settlers, while the battle and pursuit continued, succeeded in swimming to this island, where they concealed themselves among the logs and brushwood upon it. Their arms had been thrown away in their flight, previous to their entering the river, so that they were in a manner defenceless. Two of them in particular were concealed near and in sight of each other. While in this situation, they observed several of the enemy who had pursued and fired at them while they were swimming the river, preparing to follow them to the island with their guns. On reaching the island they immediately wiped their guns and loaded them. One of them with his loaded gun soon passed close by one of these men who lay concealed from his view, and was immediately recognized by him to be the brother of his companion who was concealed near him, but who, being a tory, had joined the enemy. He passed slowly along, carefully examining every covert, and directly perceived his brother in his place of concealment. He suddenly stopped and said, "so it is you, is it?" His brother finding that he was discovered, immediately came forward a few steps, and falling on his knees, begged him to spare his life, promising to live with him and serve him, and even to be his slave as long as he lived, if he would only spare his life. "*All this is mighty good,*" replied the savage-hearted brother of the supplicating man, "*but you are a d—d rebel;*" and deliberately presenting his rifle, shot him dead upon the spot. The other settler made his escape from the island, and having related this fact, the tory brother thought it prudent to accompany the British troops on their return to Canada.

The conditions of the capitulation were entirely disregarded by the British and savage forces, and after the fort was delivered up, all kinds of barbarities were committed by them. The village of Wilkesbarre, consisting of 23 houses, was

burnt; men and their wives were separated from each other and carried into captivity; their property was plundered and the settlement laid waste. The remainder of the inhabitants were driven from the Valley, and compelled to proceed on foot 60 miles through the great swamp almost without food or clothing. A number perished in the journey, principally women and children—some died of their wounds, others wandered from the path in search of food and were lost, and those who survived, called the wilderness through which they passed, "*The Shades of Death*;" an appellation which it has since retained. On their way through the swamp, the unhappy fugitives met a detachment of regular troops from the continental army under the command of Captain Spalding, which, in consequence of the representations made by the messengers had been sent to the relief of the inhabitants at Wyoming; but as all was now lost, they returned to the Delaware, and the remnant of the inhabitants proceeded to their former homes in Connecticut.

THE SERMON BEFORE THE BRANDYWINE.

There are contradictory opinions about the following sermon, said to be delivered on the eve of the battle of Brandywine. Hence I give it without comments, just as I find it. The name of the chaplain is said to have been Trout.

"They that take the sword shall perish by the sword!"—Matt. xxvi. 52.

"SOLDIERS AND COUNTRYMEN! We have met this evening, perhaps for the last time. We have shared the toil of the march, the peril of the fight, the dismay of the retreat—alike we have endured cold and hunger, the contumely of the internal foe, and outrage of the foreign oppressor. We have sat night after night, beside the same camp fire, shared the same rough soldiers' fare;—we have together heard the roll of the reveille which called us to duty, or the beat of the tattoo which gave the signal for the hardy sleep of the soldier, with the earth for his bed, and his knapsack for a pillow. And now, soldiers and brethren, we have met in the peaceful valley, on the eve of the battle, while the sunlight is dying away behind yonder heights, the sunlight that to-morrow morn will glimmer on scenes of blood. We have met amid the whitening tents of our encampment; in times of terror and gloom have we gathered together. God grant it may not be for the last time.

"It is a solemn moment. Brethren, does not the solemn voice of nature seem to echo the sympathies of the town? The flag of our country droops heavily from yonder staff. The breeze has died away along the green plain of Chadd's Ford—the plain that spreads before us glistening in sunlight—the heights of the Brandywine arise dark and gloomy beyond the waters of yonder stream, and all nature holds a pause of solemn silence on the eve of the uproar of the bloodshed and strife of to-morrow.

"They that take the sword shall perish by the sword;' and have they not taken the sword?

"Let the blood-stained valley—the desolated homes—the burned farm house—the murdered farmer—let the whitening bones of our own countrymen answer! Let the starving mother with the babe clinging to her withered breast, let her answer—with the death rattle mingling with the murmuring tones that mark the last struggle for life; let the dying mother and her babe answer!

"It was but a day past, and our land slept in the light of peace. War was not

here, wrong was not here. Fraud, and woe, and misery and want dwelt not among us. From the eternal solitude of the green woods, arose the blue smoke of the settler's cabin; and golden fields of corn looked forth from amid the waste of the wilderness, and the glad music of human voices awoke the silence of the forest.

"Now! God of mercy! Behold the change. Under the shadow of a pretext, under the sanctity of the name of God—invoking the Redeemer to their aid, do these foreign hirelings slay our people. They throng our towns, they darken our plains, and now they encompass our posts on the lonely plain of Chadd's Ford.

"'They that take the sword shall perish by the sword.' Brethren! think me not unworthy of belief, when I tell you that the doom of the Britisher is near! Think me not vain when I tell you that beyond the cloud which now enshrouds us, I see gathering thick and fast, the darker cloud and the blacker storm of Divine Retribution! They may conquer us on the morrow!—might and wrong may prevail, and we may be driven from the field—but the hour of God's vengeance *will* come! Aye, if in the vast solitudes of eternal space, if in the heart of the boundless universe, there throbs the being of an awful God, quick to revenge and sure to punish guilt, there will the man, George of Brunswick, called king, feel in his brain and in his heart the vengeance of the eternal Jehovah! a blight will be upon his life—a withered brain, an accursed intellect; a blight will be upon his children, and his people. Great God! how dread the punishment!

"Soldiers! I look around upon your familiar faces with a strange interest. To-morrow we will all go forth to battle—for need I tell you that your unworthy minister will march with you, invoking God's aid in the fight. We will march forth to battle. Need I exhort you to fight the good fight for your homesteads, your wives, and your children?

"And in the hour of battle when all around is darkness, lit by the lurid cannon glare, and the piercing musket flash, when the wounded strew the ground and the dead litter your path; then remember, soldiers, that God is with you. The eternal God is with you, and fights for you. God! the awful, the infinite, fights for you, and you will triumph.

"'They that take the sword shall perish by the sword.'

"You have taken the sword; but not in the spirit of wrong and revenge. You have taken the sword for your homes, for your wives, and for your little ones. You have taken the sword for truth, for justice, and for right, and to you the promise is, be of good cheer, for your foes have taken the sword in defiance of all man holds dear. They shall *perish by the sword*.

"And now, brethren and soldiers, I bid you all farewell. Many of us may fall in the fight of to-morrow. God rest the souls of the fallen—many of us *may* live to tell the story of the fight of to-morrow, and in the memory of all will rest the quiet scenes of this autumnal night.

"Solemn twilight advances over the valley; the woods on the opposite heights fling their long shadows over the green of the meadow—around us are the tents of the continental host—the suppressed bustle of the camp, the hurried tread of the soldiers to and fro among the tents, the stillness that marks the eve of battle.

"When we meet again, may the long shadows of twilight be flung over a peaceful land. God in heaven grant it! Amen."

THE BATTLE OF THE BRANDYWINE, SEPT. 11th, 1777.

The American army, in order to encourage the partisans of independence and overawe the disaffected, marched through the city of Philadelphia; it afterwards advanced towards the enemy, and encamped behind White Clay Creek. A little after, leaving only the riflemen in the camp, Washington retired with the main body of his army behind the Red Clay Creek, occupying with his right wing the town of Newport, situated near the Christiana, and upon the great road to Philadelphia; his left was at Hockesen. But this line was little capable of defence.

The enemy, reinforced by the rear guard under General Grant, threatened with his right the centre of the Americans, extended his left as if with the intention of turning their right flank. Washington saw the danger, and retired with his troops behind the Brandywine; he encamped on the rising grounds which extend from Chadsford, in the direction of northwest to southeast. The riflemen of Maxwell scoured the right bank of the Brandywine, in order to harass and retard the enemy. The militia under the command of General Armstrong, guarded a passage below the principal encampment of Washington, and the right wing lined the banks of the river higher up, where the passages were more difficult. The passage of Chadsford, as the most practicable of all, was defended by the chief force of the army. The troops being thus disposed, the American general waited the approach of the English. Although the Brandywine, being fordable almost everywhere, could not serve as a sufficient defence against the impetuosity of the enemy, yet Washington had taken post upon its banks, from a conviction that a battle was now inevitable, and that Philadelphia could only be saved by a victory. General Howe displayed the front of his army, but not however without great circumspection. Being arrived at Kennen Square, a short distance from the river, he detached his light-horse to the right upon Wilmington, to the left upon Lancaster road, and in front towards Chadsford. The two armies found themselves within 7 miles of each other, the Brandywine flowing between them.

Early in the morning of the 11th of September, the British army marched to the enemy. Howe had formed his army in two columns; the right commanded by General Knyphausen, the left by Lord Cornwallis. His plan was, that while the first should make repeated feints to attempt the passage of Chadsford, in order to occupy the attention of the republicans, the second should take a long circuit to the upper part of the river, and cross at a place where it is divided into two shallow streams. The English marksmen fell in with those of Maxwell, and a smart skirmish was immediately engaged. The latter were at first repulsed; but being reinforced from the camp, they compelled the English to retire in their turn. But at length, they also were reinforced, and Maxwell was constrained to withdraw his detachment behind the river. Meanwhile, Knyphausen advanced with his column, and commenced a furious cannonade upon the passage of Chadsford, making all his dispositions as if he intended to force it. The Americans defended themselves with gallantry, and even passed several detachments of light troops to the other side, in order to harass the enemy's flanks. But after a course of skirmishes, sometimes advancing, and at others obliged to retire, they were finally, with an eager pursuit, driven over the river. Knyphausen then appeared more than ever determined to pass the ford; he stormed and kept up an incredible noise. In this manner the attention of the Americans was fully occupied in the neighborhood of Chadsford. Meanwhile, Lord Cornwallis, at

the head of the second column, took a circuitous march to the left, and gained unperceived the forks of the Brandywine. By this rapid movement, he passed both branches of the river at Trimble's and at Jeffery's fords, without opposition, about 2 o'clock in the afternoon, and then turning short down the river took the road to Dilworth, in order to fall upon the right flank of the American army. The republican general, however, received intelligence of this movement about noon, and, as it usually happens in similar cases, the reports exaggerated its importance exceedingly; it being represented that General Howe commanded this division in person. Washington therefore decided immediately for the most judicious, though boldest measure; this was, to pass the river with the centre and left wing of his army, and overwhelm Knyphausen by the most furious attack. He justly reflected that the advantage he should obtain upon the enemy's right would amply compensate the loss that his own might sustain at the same time. Accordingly he ordered General Sullivan to pass the Brandywine with his division at an upper ford, and attack the left of Knyphausen, while he, in person, should cross lower down and fall upon the right of the general.

They were both already in motion in order to execute this design, when a second report arrived, which represented what had really taken place as false, or in other words, that the enemy had not crossed the two branches of the river, and that he had not made his appearance upon the right flank of the American troops. Deceived by this false intelligence, Washington desisted; and Greene, who had already passed with the vanguard, was ordered back. In the midst of these uncertainties, the commander-in-chief at length received positive assurance, not only that the English had appeared upon the left bank, but also that they were about to fall in great force upon the right wing. It was composed of the brigades of generals Stephens, Sterling, and Sullivan; the first was the most advanced, and consequently nearest to the English; the two others were posted in the order of their rank, that of Sullivan being next to the centre. This general was immediately detached from the main body, to support the former brigades, and being the senior officer, took the command of the whole wing. Washington himself, followed by General Greene, approached with two strong divisions towards this wing, and posted himself between it and the corps he had left at Chadsford, under General Wayne, to oppose the passage of Knyphausen. These two divisions, under the immediate orders of the commander-in-chief, served as a corps of reserve, ready to march, according to circumstances, to the succor of Sullivan or of Wayne.

But the column of Cornwallis was already in sight of the Americans. Sullivan drew up his troops on the commanding ground above Birmingham meeting-house, with his left extending towards the Brandywine, and both his flanks covered with very thick woods. His artillery was advantageously planted upon the neighboring hills; but it appears that Sullivan's own brigade, having taken a long circuit, arrived too late upon the field of battle, and had not yet occupied the position assigned it, when the action commenced. The English having reconnoitred the dispositions of the Americans, immediately formed, and fell upon them with the utmost impetuosity. The engagement became equally fierce on both sides about 4 o'clock in the afternoon. For some length of time the Americans defended themselves with great valor, and the carnage was terrible. But such was the emulation which invigorated the efforts of the English and Hessians, that neither the advantages of the situation, nor a heavy and well supported fire of small arms and artillery, nor the unshaken courage of the Americans, were able to resist their

impetuosity. The light infantry, chasseurs, grenadiers, and guards threw themselves with such fury into the midst of the republican battalions, that they were forced to give way. Their left flank was first thrown into confusion, but the rout soon became general. The vanquished fled into the woods in their rear; the victors pursued, and advanced by the great road towards Dilworth. On the first fire of the artillery, Washington, having no doubt of what was passing, had pushed forward the reserve to the succor of Sullivan. But this corps, on approaching the field of battle, fell in with the flying soldiers of Sullivan and perceived that no hope remained of retrieving the fortune of the day. General Greene, by a judicious manœuvre, opened his ranks to receive the fugitives, and after their passage having closed them anew, he retired in good order; checking the pursuit of the enemy by a continual fire of the artillery which covered his rear. Having come to a defile, covered on both sides by the woods, he drew up his men there, and again faced the enemy. His corps was composed of Virginians and Pennsylvanians; they defended themselves with gallantry; the former especially, commanded by Colonel Stephens, made a heroic stand.

Knyphausen finding the Americans to be fully engaged on their right, and observing that the corps opposed to him at Chadsford was enfeebled by the troops which had been detached to the succor of Sullivan, began to make dispositions for crossing the river in reality. The passage at Chadsford was defended by an intrenchment and battery. The republicans stood firm at first; but upon intelligence of the defeat of their right, and seeing some of the British troops who had penetrated through the woods, come out upon their flank, they retired in disorder, abandoning their artillery and munitions to the German general. In their retreat, or rather flight, they passed behind the position of General Greene, who still defended himself, and was the last to quit the field of battle. Finally, it being already dark, after a long and obstinate conflict, he also retired. The whole army retreated that night to Chester, and the day following to Philadelphia.

There the fugitives arrived incessantly, having effected their escape through by-ways and circuitous routes. The victors passed the night on the field of battle. If darkness had not arrived seasonably, it is very probable that the whole American army would have been destroyed. The loss of the republicans was computed at about 300 killed, 600 wounded, and near 400 taken prisoners. They also lost ten field-pieces and a howitzer. The loss in the royal army was not in proportion, being something under 500, of which the slain did not amount to one-fifth.

ADAM POE'S FIGHT WITH THE INDIANS.

A REMINISCENCE OF THE EARLY HISTORY OF PITTSBURG.

About the year 1782, six or seven Wyandotte Indians crossed over to the south side of the Ohio River, 50 miles below Pittsburg, and in their hostile excursions among our early settlers killed an old man, whom they found alone in one of the houses which they plundered. The news soon spread among the white people, seven or eight of whom seized their rifles and pursued the marauders. In this party were two brothers named Adam and Andrew Poe, strong and active men, and much respected in the settlement. The Indians had frequently been over before, had sometimes penetrated 20 miles into the country, and had always succeeded in recrossing the river without being overtaken by our people. The Poes and their companions were, therefore, particularly anxious not to let them escape

on this occasion. They pursued them all night, and in the morning found themselves, as they expected, upon the right track. The Indians could now be easily followed by the traces left upon the dew. The print of one very large foot was seen, and it was thus known that a famous Indian of uncommon size and strength must be of the party. The track led to the river. Our people followed it directly, Adam Poe excepted, who feared that they might be taken by surprise, and broke off from the rest to go along on the edge of the bank, under the cover of trees and bushes, and to fall upon the savages suddenly that he might get them between his own fire and that of his companions. At the point where he suspected they were, he saw the rafts, which they were accustomed to push before them when they swam the river, and on which they placed their blankets, tomahawks, and guns. The Indians themselves he could not see, and was obliged to go partly down the bank to get a shot at them. As he descended, with his rifle cocked, he discovered two, the celebrated large Indian and a smaller one, separated from the others, holding their rifles also cocked in their hands. He took aim at the large one, but his rifle snapped without giving the intended fire. The Indians turned instantly at the sound. Poe was too near them to retreat, and had not time to cock and take aim again. Suddenly he leaped down upon them, and caught the large Indian by the clothes on his breast, and the small one by throwing an arm round his neck. They all fell together, but Poe was uppermost. While he was struggling to keep down the large Indian, the small one, at a word spoken by his fellow savage, slipped his neck out of Poe's embrace, and ran to the raft for a tomahawk. The large Indian at this moment threw his arms about Poe's body, and held him fast that the other might come and kill him. Poe watched the approach and the descending arm of the small Indian so well that at the instant of the intended stroke he raised his foot, and by a vigorous and skilful blow knocked the tomahawk from the assailant's hand. At this the large Indian cried out with an exclamation of contempt for the small one. The latter, however, caught his tomahawk again, and approached more cautiously, waving his arm up and down with mock blows to deceive Poe as to the stroke which was intended to be real and fatal. Poe, however, was so vigilant and active that he averted the tomahawk from his head, and received it upon his wrist, with a considerable wound, deep enough to cripple, but not entirely to destroy the use of his hand. In this crisis of peril, he made a violent effort, and broke loose from the large Indian. He snatched a rifle and shot the small one through the breast as he ran up a third time with his lifted tomahawk. The large Indian was now on his feet, and, grasping Poe by the shoulder and the leg, hurled him in the air heels over head upon the shore. Poe instantly rose, and a new and more desperate struggle ensued. The bank was slippery, and they fell into the water, where each strove to drown the other. Their efforts were long and doubtful, each alternately under and half strangled, till Poe fortunately grasped, with his unwounded hand, the tuft of hair upon the scalp of the Indian, and forced his head into the water; this appeared to be decisive of his fate, for soon he manifested all the symptoms of a drowning man bewildered in the moment of death. Poe relaxed his hold, and discovered too late the stratagem. The Indian was instantly upon his feet again, and engaged anew in the fierce contest for life and victory. They were naturally carried further into the stream, and the current, becoming stronger, bore them beyond their depth. They were now compelled to loosen their hold upon each other, and to swim for mutual safety. Both sought the shore to seize a gun, but the Indian was the best swimmer, and gained it first.

Poe then turned immediately back into the water to avoid a greater danger, meaning to dive, if possible, to escape the fire. Fortunately for him, the Indian caught up the rifle which had been discharged into the breast of his smaller companion. At this critical juncture, Andrew, his brother, returned in haste, having left the party who had been in pursuit of the other Indians, and who had killed all but one of them, at the expense of three of their own lives. He heard that Adam was in great peril, and alone in the fight with two against him. One of our people, following not far in the rear of Andrew, mistook Adam in the water with his bloody hand for a wounded Indian, and fired a bullet into his shoulder. Adam cried out to his brother to kill the big Indian on the shore, but Andrew's gun had been discharged and was not again loaded. The contest was now between the savage and Andrew. Each labored to load his rifle first. The Indian, after putting in his powder, and hurrying his motions to force down the ball drew out his ramrod with such violence as to throw it some yards into the water. While he ran to pick it up, Andrew gained an advantage, and shot the Indian just as he was raising his gun to his eye for a deadly aim. Andrew then jumped into the river to assist his wounded brother to the shore; but Adam, thinking more of carrying the big Indian home as a trophy than of his own wounds, urged Andrew to go back and prevent the struggling savage from rolling himself into the current and escaping. Andrew, however, was too solicitous for the fate of Adam to allow him to obey, and the Indian, jealous of his honor as a warrior even in death, and knowing well the intention of his white conquerors, succeeded in retaining life and action long enough to reach the current, by which his dead body was carried down beyond the chance of pursuit.

This native was the most distinguished among five celebrated brothers belonging to the royal family of the tribe of Wyandottes. Notwithstanding he was engaged in this predatory expedition, he was acknowledged by all to be peculiarly magnanimous for an Indian, and had contributed, more than any other individual, to preserve and extend the practice which was known to prevail in his tribe, that of not taking the lives of prisoners, and of not suffering them to be treated ill. This practice was an honorable distinction for the Wyandottes, as was well understood by the white people who were traders with the Indians, and by those of our early settlers and brethren who had been made prisoners in war. It was a common remark among them, "If we become the prisoners of the Wyandottes, we shall be fortunate." The death of this large Indian and of his four brothers, who were all in the party, was more deeply lamented by the tribe, as was afterward learned, than all the other losses sustained during the hostilities carried on between them and us. There was a universal, solemn, and distressing mourning.

Adam Poe recovered from his wounds, and gave this account in person to James Morrison, Esq., from whom we have received it, and by whom we are assured that it is correct. The courage and enterprise, the suffering and fortitude, the decision and perseverance of the early settlers of this western country, by whose labors we are now so peaceful and happy, ought not to be forgotten. but may well be related from time to time to excite in us the spirit of similar virtues, and to teach us how to consider the slight privations which we are, or may be, called to meet. Gratitude is more appropriate to our condition than discontent.

DELAWARE.

Area,	2,120 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	112,216
Population in 1870,	125,015

THE State of Delaware, one of the original members of the Union, is situated between $38^{\circ} 28'$ and $39^{\circ} 50'$ N. latitude, and 75° and $75^{\circ} 45'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Pennsylvania, on the east by Delaware River and Bay (by which it is separated from New Jersey) and the Atlantic Ocean, and on the south and west by Maryland. It is about 96 miles long, from north to south, and 37 miles wide, from east to west.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The northern part of the State is a fine rolling country, healthy and beautiful; but the southern and central counties are low and generally sandy. The lower part of the State is occupied by a large cypress swamp. Just north of this swamp, is a slight elevation running north and south. It is occupied with swamps, in which rise the waters flowing into the Delaware Bay. This State and the eastern shore of Maryland, lying between the Delaware and Chesapeake bays, form a low peninsula, over which the salt air sweeps with but little to interrupt it.

The Delaware River, which washes the eastern shore of the State, has been described. It is the principal stream. *The Brandywine*, which enters the State from Pennsylvania, on the north, and flows into the Delaware at Wilmington, is a fine mill stream. *Indian River*, which flows into the Atlantic in the southern part of the State, is the largest stream lying wholly within the limits of Delaware. A num-

ber of creeks flow into Delaware Bay and the Atlantic, and the Nanticoke and Choptank rivers of Maryland rise in the southwestern part of the State.

Delaware Bay is a large arm of the sea, separating the States of Delaware and New Jersey. It is 13 miles wide at its mouth. Cape Henlopen, on the southwestern side, is in Delaware; and Cape May, on the northeast side, in New Jersey. The bay is 60 miles long, from the capes to the mouth of the Delaware River, and is 25 miles wide at its broadest part. It is considerably obstructed with shoals, which make its navigation difficult in many places. It offers the only harbor between New York and the Chesapeake; and for the purpose of protecting it, the Government has erected, at a cost of over \$2,000,000, a magnificent breakwater consisting of two sides, extending out from the Delaware shore at Cape Henlopen. The upper side protects the harbor thus formed from floating ice, and the lower side guards it from the violence of the waves of the sea. The breakwater is built of massive stone, and is one of the best in the world.

MINERALS.

Delaware is almost without mineral resources. Bog iron ore exists in the southern swamps; and a fine white sand, used in making glass, is found near the head of Delaware Bay. Large quantities of it are shipped to New England.

CLIMATE.

The sea breeze, which sweeps over the entire State, renders the climate mild and pleasant, as a general rule; but the winters are sometimes severe and trying. The southern and central portions are afflicted with ague and fever, and are consequently unhealthy.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The soil in the southern portion of the State is sandy; in the centre it consists of a mixture of clay and sand; and in the northern part it is a fine, fertile loam. Since the census of 1860, the State has made great progress in agriculture, and the cultivation of fruit has increased beyond the most sanguine expectations. The abolition of slavery has drawn into the State a considerable emigration of small farmers from New England, and it is becoming one of the most productive sections of the Union. The peach crop is rarely a failure in

this State, and its small fruits, melons, and sweet potatoes have made it famous throughout the country.

In 1869, there were 637,065 acres of improved, and 367,230 acres of unimproved land in Delaware. The other products for the same year were as follows:

Cash value of farms (estimated),	\$31,426,357
Value of farming implements and machinery (estimated),	\$820,000
Number of horses,	25,160
“ asses and mules,	4,112
“ milch cows,	24,198
“ young cattle,	35,340
“ sheep,	19,540
“ swine,	51,360
Value of domestic animals,	\$5,144,706
Bushels of wheat,	830,000
“ rye,	35,000
“ Indian corn,	3,200,000
“ oats,	1,723,000
“ peas and beans,	8,438
“ potatoes,	200,000
“ barley,	6,000
“ buckwheat,	12,000
Pounds of butter,	1,430,502
“ cheese,	6,579
“ beeswax and honey,	68,130
Tons of hay,	30,000

COMMERCE.

Delaware has but little direct foreign trade, almost the entire business of the State passing through the ports of Philadelphia and Baltimore. In 1863, the tonnage owned in the State amounted to 25,963. Delaware exports large quantities of fruit to the northern States, together with a considerable quantity of lumber from her swamps.

MANUFACTURES.

The only manufacturing town in Delaware is Wilmington; but manufacturing establishments are located in various parts of the State. In 1870, the State contained 800 establishments devoted to manufactures. They employed 9710 hands and a capital of \$10,839,093, consumed raw material worth \$10,206,397, and yielded an annual product of \$16,791,382. The following is a detailed statement of the value of the principal manufactures in 1870:

Cotton goods,	\$1,060,898
Woollen goods,	569,721
Leather,	2,050,846
Steam engines and machinery,	839,428
Agricultural implements,	41,325
Sawed and planed Lumber,	466,941
Flour,	2,037,401
Boots and shoes,	490,698
Carriages,	842,176

The railroad cars and gunpowder of Wilmington rank high amongst the products of the State, but no estimates of them are at hand.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

The principal public work in the State is the Canal, extending entirely across the State and connecting Delaware and Chesapeake bays. It is 16 miles long, 66 feet wide at the surface, 10 feet deep, and is provided with two lift and two tide locks, 100 feet long by 22 feet wide. It was completed in 1829, cost \$2,750,000, and affords inland steam communication between Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York. Near the eastern end of the canal, is the famous "deep cut," an excavation 90 feet deep, and 6 miles long, through which the canal passes.

A railroad from Philadelphia to Baltimore, the main line of the through travel between the North and the South, extends across the northern part of the State. The Delaware Railroad extends from Wilmington through the centre of the State to the lower part of the eastern shore of Maryland. A branch road leads off from the main stem to Easton, Md., and another into the eastern part of Sussex county. Owing to the extreme narrowness of the State, the Delaware road brings every part of it below Wilmington within direct railroad communication with all parts of the Union. In 1872, the State contained 227 miles of completed railroads, constructed at a cost of about \$7,000,000. The Delaware road, it should be added, connects with steamers for Norfolk at Crisfield, Md., and thus forms the most direct route from Norfolk to Philadelphia and New York.

EDUCATION.

There is no regular public school system in Delaware, as in the other Middle States. The counties and towns are left to themselves in their efforts to provide public instruction. The State makes an

annual appropriation for this purpose, of 50 cents for each pupil in Sussex and Kent counties, and 20 cents for each pupil in Newcastle county. In 1870, there were 326 public schools in the State, with 17,835 pupils. The number is about the same at present.

A State Normal School was established in 1866. Besides this, there are two colleges in the State with about 90 students. *Delaware College* is located at Newark, and *St. Mary's College* at Wilmington. The schools being closed to colored children, about 24 colored schools have been opened in various parts of the State.

In 1870, the State contained 473 libraries, of which over 200 were public. There were 14 political papers—1 daily, 10 weekly, and 3 semi-weekly—and 1 literary paper (a weekly) published in Delaware. They had a total annual circulation of 1,607,840 copies.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

Delaware maintains its insane, deaf, dumb, and blind, in the institutions of other States, and has no such establishments of its own. The State is also without a penitentiary. Criminals are confined in the county jails. Until within a year or two, many offences were punished by whipping at the public whipping-post, and standing in the pillory. As late as the 5th of December, 1868, a scene of this kind occurred at Newcastle.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, the value of church property in Delaware was \$1,823,950. The number of churches was 252.

FINANCES.

At the beginning of the year 1871, the aggregate indebtedness of the State of Delaware amounted to \$1,632,000, an increase of \$176,000 in two years. The State has investments amounting to \$1,074,150, which is \$224,000 more than it held at the beginning of 1869. The receipts of the Treasury for the year 1870 were \$120,577.

In 1868, there were 11 National Banks in Delaware, with an aggregate capital of \$1,428,185.

GOVERNMENT.

In this State every free male citizen, 22 years of age, who has resided one year in the State, and for the last month of this year in the

county, and who has paid a county tax assessed at least 6 months before the election, is entitled to vote; but free male citizens between 21 and 22 years of age may vote without paying taxes, provided they have complied with the other conditions.

The Government is conducted by a Governor, and Legislature consisting of a Senate (of 9 members) and a House of Representatives (of 21 members), all elected by the people. The Secretary of State is appointed by the Governor, and serves for 4 years. The Attorney-General is appointed in the same way, and holds office 5 years. The State Treasurer and Auditor are elected by the Legislature for 2 years. The Governor serves for 4 years, and the members of the Legislature for 2 years. The Legislature meets once in two years.

The Judiciary consists of a Court of Errors and Appeals, Superior Court, Court of Chancery, Orphans' Court, Court of Oyer and Terminer, Court of General Sessions of the Peace and Jail Delivery, Register's Court, and Justices of the Peace. The Chancellor is the principal Judge of the State.

Dover, in Kent county, is the capital.

For purposes of government, Delaware is divided into three counties, viz: Newcastle, Kent, and Sussex.

HISTORY.

The first settlements in this State were made by the Swedes and Finns, in 1627. As we have shown in the sketch of Pennsylvania, they were conquered by the Dutch, in 1655, and turned over to the English when New York passed into their hands, in 1664. Delaware formed a part of the territory granted to William Penn, in 1682; and from that time until the Revolution, continued to form a part of Pennsylvania. It was allowed a separate Assembly about the year 1701, but remained subject to the authority of the Governor of Pennsylvania until 1776, when it was granted an independent existence. It adopted a State Constitution, on the 20th of September, 1776, and was received into the Union of the States. The province bore its full share of the burdens of the wars with France; and in the Revolution, the Delaware regiment was known as one of the most efficient in the army. On the 7th of December, 1787, the State ratified the Constitution of the United States; and in 1792, a new State Constitution was adopted.

In 1865, slavery was abolished in the State by the ratification of an

amendment to the Federal Constitution. The number of slaves was 1798 in 1860, but had been considerably reduced by 1865.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Wilmington is the largest town in the State. The other places of importance are, Smyrna, Dover, Newcastle, Delaware City, Seaford, and Lewes.

DOVER,

The capital of the State, is situated in Kent county, on Jones' Creek, 5 miles above the Delaware River. It is 50 miles south from Wilmington, and 114 northeast from Washington City. The town is prettily situated on high ground, and is built mostly of brick. The streets are wide and cross each other at right-angles, and are prettily shaded with trees. The town contains a fine State House, and the buildings devoted to the public offices, all of which face an open and tastefully ornamented square. The railway from Wilmington to Crisfield, Md., passes through Dover, which is thus brought in communication with all parts of the State. There are several flourishing schools in Dover, 4 churches, and 1 newspaper office. Many of the residences are handsome and attractive. In 1870, the population was 1913.

WILMINGTON,

The largest and most important city of the State, is situated in Newcastle county, on Christiana Creek, just above its junction with the Brandywine, and within 2 miles of the Delaware River. It is 28 miles southwest of Philadelphia, and 108 miles northeast of Washington City. It is built on the southern slope of a hill, the summit of which is 110 feet above tide-water. The upper portions of the city command excellent views of the Delaware River and the surrounding country. The general plan of Wilmington is regular, with wide, straight streets intersecting each other at right-angles. The buildings are principally of brick, and give to the city a substantial air, which is being greatly improved of late by the frequent introduction of stone in the more modern edifices. The principal business thoroughfare is Market street, about a mile in length. It extends from the Christiana to the Brandywine, intersects the other streets at right-angles, and crosses each of the creeks named by a handsome bridge. Street railways connect the principal points of the city.



PEACH FARM.

The Public Buildings are the *Town Hall*, the *Custom House*, a fine granite structure, and the *Institute*. The *Roman Catholic College*, about 10 public schools, and 7 or 8 private schools constitute the educational establishments. The *Institute* contains a spacious hall, a scientific lecture-room, and a library of over 8000 volumes. The city also contains a large hospital, an alms-house, and about 30 churches; is supplied with pure water from the Brandywine, and is lighted with gas. It has a well organized police force, and a steam fire department. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. Five newspapers are published here.

Wilmington is accessible to steamers and ships, and is connected with Philadelphia and Baltimore by railway. It is also the northern terminus of the Delaware Railway. It is a place of considerable trade, and is also largely engaged in manufactures. The principal of these are iron steamboats, railway cars, steam engines, railroad wheels, locomotive and car springs, mill machinery, other iron goods, powder, carriages, flour, leather, shoes, cotton and woollen goods, and agricultural implements.

THE SOUTHERN STATES.

MARYLAND.

Area,	9,356 Square Miles.*
Population in 1860,	687,049
Population in 1870,	780,894

THE State of Maryland, one of the original members of the Union, is situated between 38° and $39^{\circ} 44'$ N. latitude, and $75^{\circ} 10'$ and $79^{\circ} 20'$ W. longitude. It is 190 miles long from east to west in the extreme northern part, and 120 miles wide from north to south in the extreme eastern part. Its width, however, varies greatly in different localities. It is bounded on the north by Pennsylvania, on the east by Delaware, on the south by Virginia and West Virginia, and on the west by West Virginia. It is separated from the two Virginias on the south by the Potomac River. *The District of Columbia*, the seat of the Federal Government, lies on the banks of the Potomac, in the southwestern part of the State, and originally formed a part of the State of Maryland.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The Chesapeake Bay divides the State into two unequal portions, called the Eastern and Western Shore. The Western Shore is about twice the size of the Eastern, and comprises the more important part of the State. The Eastern Shore is mostly level, or at the best slightly rolling. The surface of the Western Shore rises as it recedes from the bay, and west of Baltimore is rugged and mountainous. The Alleghany Mountains cross the State in the western part, and are known as the Southeast Mountain, Sugar Loaf Mountain, Catoclin, Blue Ridge, Kittatinny, Rugged Mountain, and Will's Mountain.

* This estimate is exclusive of the area occupied by the Bay. Including the Chesapeake, the area of the State is about 11,124 square miles.

The State is not over 6 or 7 miles wide in the greater part of this region, but it is rich in magnificent scenery.

The Chesapeake Bay lies in the eastern part of the State, and divides it, as we have stated, into two unequal portions. It receives the waters of the Susquehanna at its head, the Elk, Chester, Sassafras, Choptank, and Nanticoke rivers from the Eastern Shore, and the Patapsco, Patuxent, and Potomac from the Western. The bay is about 200 miles long, and for 120 miles lies entirely in Maryland. The lower part, from the mouth of the Potomac, lies in Virginia. Its northern point is called Cape Charles, and its southern Cape Henry. The width between these capes is 12 miles. Above this the bay varies in width from 10 to 40 miles. Its shores are thickly studded with inlets, many of which are fine harbors. It is navigable for the largest ships nearly to its head, and for steamers into the Susquehanna. It is one of the most beautiful sheets of water in the world. After passing the southern boundary of Maryland, it receives the waters of the Rappahannock, York, and James rivers, of Virginia, on its western side. It connects Alexandria, Norfolk, and Richmond, in Virginia, Washington City, in the District of Columbia, and Baltimore, in Maryland, with the sea. An immense trade is carried on over its waters.

The Chesapeake is famous for the abundance and variety of the game which it furnishes. Its oysters are world-renowned, and seem inexhaustible. The bay and inlets abound in a variety of the finest fish and terrapin, and other salt-water delicacies are found all along its shores. These waters supply the principal markets of the Eastern States with such delicacies. "There is," says Dr. Lewis, in the "American Sportsman," "no place in our wide extent of country where wild fowl shooting is followed with so much ardor as on the Chesapeake Bay and its tributaries, not only by those who make a comfortable living from the business, but also by gentlemen who resort to these waters from all parts of the adjoining States to participate in the enjoyments of this far-famed ducking ground. All species of wild fowl come here in numbers beyond credence, and it is really necessary for a stranger to visit the region if he wishes to form a just idea of the wonderful multitudes and numberless varieties of ducks that darken these waters, and hover in interminable flocks over these famed feeding grounds. It is not, however, the variety or extraordinary numbers of ducks on the Chesapeake that particularly attract the steps of so many shooters to these parts, as there are other rivers



OYSTER FISHING.

and streams equally accessible where wild fowl also abound. But the great magnet that makes these shores the centre of attraction, is the presence of the far-famed Canvass-Back, that here alone acquires its peculiar delicacy of flavor, while feeding upon the shores and flats of these waters."

"The canvass-backs," says Dr. Sharpless, of Philadelphia, in a paper contributed to "Audubon's Birds of America," "pass up and down the bay, from river to river, in their morning and evening flights, giving, at certain localities, great opportunities for destruction. They pursue, even in their short passages, very much the order of their migratory movements, flying in a line of baseless triangle: and when the wind blows on the points which may lie in their course, the sportsman has great chance of success. These points or courses of the ducks are materially affected by the winds; for they avoid, if possible, an approach to the shore; but when a strong breeze sets them on to these projections of the land, they are compelled to pass within shot, and often over the land itself. In the Susquehanna and Elk rivers there are few of these points for shooting, and there success

depends on approaching them while on their feeding grounds. After leaving the eastern point at the mouth of the Susquehanna and Turkey Point, the western side of the Elk River, which are both moderately good for flying shooting, the first place of much celebrity is the Narrows, between Spesutic Island and the western shore. These Narrows are about 3 miles in length, and from 300 to 500 yards in breadth. By the middle of November, the canvass-backs, in particular, begin to feed in this passage, and the entrance and outlet, as well as many intermediate spots, become very successful stations. A few miles down the western shore is Taylor's Island, which is situated at the mouth of the Rumney and Abbey Island, at the mouth of Bush River, which are both celebrated for ducks, as well as for swans and geese. These are the most northerly points where large fowl are met with, and projecting out between deep coves, where immense numbers of these birds feed, they possess great advantages. The south point of Bush River, Legoe's Point, and Robbins' and Pickett's points, near Gunpowder River, are famous localities. Immediately at the mouth of this river is situated Carroll's Island, which has long been known as a great shooting ground. Maxwell's Point, as well as some others up other rivers, and even further down the bay, are good places, but less celebrated than those mentioned. Most of these places are let out as shooting grounds for companies and individuals, and are esteemed so valuable that intruders are severely treated." Norfolk, Virginia, on the Elizabeth River, at the lower extremity of the bay, is the depot for the receipt and sale of the game taken in the Chesapeake, and there the best purchases can be made. The sport, as all who have joined in it full well know, is not without its difficulties and its dangers. Says the learned doctor from whom we have already quoted: "Notwithstanding the apparent facilities that are offered of success, the amusement of duck-shooting is probably one of the most exposing to cold and wet; and those who undertake its enjoyment without a courage 'screwed to the sticking-point,' will soon discover that 'to one good a thousand ills oppose.' It is, indeed, no parlor sport; for, after creeping through mud and mire, often for hundreds of yards, to be at last disappointed, and stand exposed on points to the 'pelting rain or more than freezing cold,' for hours, without even the promise of a shot—would try the patience of even Franklin's 'glorious nibbler.' It is, however, replete with excitement and charm. To one who can enter on the pleasure with a system formed for polar cold, and a spirit to endure the weary toil of

many a stormy day, it will yield a harvest of health and delight that the roamer of the woods can rarely enjoy."

The rivers of the State are little more than arms of the bay.

The Patapsco River rises in Carroll county, in the northern part of the State. It flows southward as far as the line of Baltimore and Anne Arundel counties, where it turns to the east, forming the boundary between those counties, and emptying into the Chesapeake, 14 miles east of Baltimore City. It is about 80 miles long. Until it reaches the border of Anne Arundel county, it flows through a hilly country, and, being broken by numerous falls, forms a fine mill stream. It flows into the bay through a wide estuary about 14 miles long, and 3 miles wide, which is navigable to Baltimore for the largest ships. *The Patuxent River* rises about 18 miles southeast of Frederick City, and flowing south-southeast between the counties of Montgomery, Prince George's, Charles, and St. Mary's, on the right, and Howard, Anne Arundel, and Calvert, on the left, empties into Chesapeake Bay, through a broad estuary, 3 or 4 miles wide. The river is 90 miles long, and is navigable for about 48 or 50 miles from its mouth. It flows through a fine agricultural region. *The Choptank River* rises in Kent county, Delaware, and flows into the Chesapeake Bay, between Dorchester and Talbot counties, on the Eastern Shore of Maryland. About 20 miles from its mouth, it spreads out into a broad estuary, 3 or 4 miles wide, which affords some of the finest water scenery in America. It is about 100 miles long, is navigable for steamers for about 40 miles, for sloops for 10 or 15 miles higher, and lies for the greater part in Maryland. The other rivers are the Elk, Sassafras, Chester, Pocomoke, and Nanticoke. These, with the bay itself, cut up the Eastern Shore into so many inlets that vessels can lie alongside the shores of the majority of the farms in that part of the State and receive the crops on board.

Kent Island, in Chesapeake Bay, opposite Annapolis, forms a part of Queen Anne's county, and is famous as having been the site of the first English settlement in the State.

MINERALS.

Coal and iron are found in large quantities in the western part of the State, and of the very best qualities. Copper is found in Frederick and Carroll counties, where important mines are located. Cobalt is found along the Patapsco, and traces of nickel have been discovered

in some of the copper mines. Lignites occur in quantities in Anne Arundel county, mixed with amber and iron pyrites. Alum, porcelain-clay, lime, chrome, manganese, magnesia, barytes, marble, marl, and ochres are also found, and gold has been discovered.

CLIMATE.

Lying between the Northern and Southern States, Maryland does not share the extremes of the temperature of either section, but possesses a climate noted for its evenness and mildness. The breezes from the bay sweep over the greater part of the State, and add much to this effect. The country along the bay and its tributaries, however, is sickly, being afflicted with chills and fevers.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The soil of the eastern shore is sandy in the lower part, but consists of mixtures of clay and sand above the Choptank River. The lands of Talbot county are among the finest in the State. The southern counties of the western shore have also a sandy soil, but that of the other counties is very fertile. That of Frederick county will compare in productiveness with any in the Union. The agriculture of the State is backward. Manures have been but little used, although lime and marl exist in considerable quantities in the State. A change for the better has taken place of late, however. The abolition of slavery has opened the way for the small farmers of New England and the Middle States, who are settling in the State, especially upon the eastern shore, in great numbers. Great attention is being paid to the growing of fruits, to which this State is peculiarly adapted. Large quantities of peaches and small fruits are annually sent to northern markets. Tobacco also forms an important staple. The land is easily brought to a high state of fertility, and in the eastern counties the winters are short and mild. Horses in the sandy counties do not require to be shod, and many of the farms having water boundaries need little or no fencing.

In 1869 there were about 3,002,269 acres of improved, and 1,833,306 acres of unimproved land in the State. The other products for the same year may be stated as follows :

Number of horses,	99,112
“ asses and mules,	11,310
“ milch cows,	100,030

Number of young cattle,	170,110
“ sheep,	160,211
“ swine,	398,120
Value of domestic animals,	\$15,667,853
Bushels of wheat,	7,733,000
“ rye,	182,000
“ Indian corn,	12,300,000
“ oats,	7,100,000
“ peas and beans,	39,407
“ potatoes,	1,050,000
“ barley,	24,000
“ buckwheat,	150,000
Hhds of tobacco	25,000
Pounds of wool (estimated),	500,000
“ butter,	5,265,295
“ cheese,	8,342
Tons of hay,	191,000

COMMERCE.

Baltimore is the chief commercial city of the State, and is actively engaged in an important trade with the Southern and Western States, and with Europe. The tonnage owned in the State in 1863 was 288,860. During the same year the exports of the State amounted to \$12,089,072, and the imports to \$4,484,399. The coal of this State is coming into considerable prominence as fuel for steamers, and an important trade is carried on with all parts of the world in canned fruits, vegetables, oysters, etc., prepared in the Bay counties and in Baltimore.

MANUFACTURES.

Maryland is extensively engaged in manufactures. In 1870 there were 5812 establishments in the State devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts. They employed a capital of \$36,438,729 and 44,860 hands, consumed raw material worth \$46,897,032, and returned an annual product of \$76,593,613. The value of the principal manufactures for 1870 was as follows:

Cotton goods,	\$4,852,808
Woollen goods,	390,036
Leather,	2,084,696
Pig iron,	2,143,089
Rolled iron,	3,573,212
Steam engines and machinery,	954,866
Agricultural implements,	549,085
Sawed and planed lumber,	1,976,328
Flour,	6,786,459

Copper,	\$1,026,500
Spirituous and malt liquors,	1,555,004
Boots and shoes,	3,111,076
Furniture,	1,399,488
Soap and candles,	521,439

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

Maryland was one of the first States in the Union to engage in internal improvements. Her first effort was to build the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, between Washington City and Cumberland. This work cost her over \$7,000,000, but has never been a source of profit to her. The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, extending from Baltimore across the mountains to the Ohio River, at Wheeling, West Va., is one of the most important lines in the Union, and was the first ever opened in this country for purposes of general travel. Baltimore is connected with all the important towns of the State, and with all parts of the Union. In 1872, the State contained 820 miles of completed railroads (including a few miles in the District of Columbia), constructed at a cost of about \$45,000,000. The total length of canals in the State is about 200 miles.

EDUCATION.

Until recently the public school system of Maryland was not in keeping with the traditional enterprise and public spirit of the State. Since the close of the war, however, the system has been reorganized and established upon a much better plan.

The supervision of schools is rested in a State Board, County Boards, and School District Boards. The State Board consists of four members, appointed by the Governor. The principal of the State Normal School is *ex-officio* a member of this board. The State Board has the general control of the educational system of the State. Each county is in charge of a Board of County School Commissioners, appointed by the judges of the Circuit Court, and consisting of three members. Each District Board consists of three persons, appointed by the County School Commissioners. The County Commissioners appoint County Examiners, who have power to grant to teachers, after examination, certificates of two grades, which are good for three years, but no longer. A State tax of 10 cents on each one hundred dollars of taxable property throughout the State is to be levied annually for the support of the schools.

The State Normal School is located in Baltimore, and was opened in January, 1866. In September, of the same year, a Model School was added to it. A liberal provision is made for a system of colored schools throughout the State.

The schools of the city of Baltimore are distinct from those of the State, and are controlled by the municipal authorities. They have long been noted for their excellence. The school system in the city is of far older date than that of the State.

In 1870 Maryland contained 1347 public schools, exclusive of those of Baltimore City, attended by 75,402 children. The total amount expended upon the public schools in the same year was \$751,310.

The principal collegiate institutions are Washington College, at Chestertown; St. John's College, at Annapolis; St. Mary's College, at Baltimore; St. Charles's College, at Ellicott's Mills; Mount St. Mary's College, at Emmittsburg; the College of St. James, in Washington county; St. John's College, at Frederick City; St. Mary's Theological Seminary, at Baltimore; the Medical School of the University of Maryland, Washington Medical College, the College of Dental Surgery, and Baltimore Female College, at Baltimore; and the State Agricultural College, in Prince George's county. They are all prosperous. During the war some of them were temporarily closed, but all are again in operation. The State supports the Agricultural College, and assists St. John's College, at Annapolis, Washington College, at Chestertown, and the Baltimore Female College, at Baltimore City.

There were in Maryland, in 1870, about 3353 libraries, containing 1,713,483 volumes.

In the same year the number of newspapers and periodicals published in the State was as follows: daily 8, tri-weekly 1, weekly 69, miscellaneous 10. In the same year several literary and religious papers were published in the State. The political journals had an aggregate annual circulation of 31,858,514 copies.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The city of Baltimore is well provided with penal and charitable establishments of its own. Those of the State are the Penitentiary and the Hospital for the Insane.

The Maryland Penitentiary is located at Baltimore. Extensive additions have been made to its buildings, of late, but there is still a

deficiency in the accommodations provided for the prisoners. In November, 1867, the number of inmates was 679.

The Maryland Hospital for the Insane, at Baltimore, is an excellent institution, and is liberally supported by the State. In January, 1868, it contained 113 patients. Two classes are received here—State patients, and those who pay their own expenses.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, the value of church property in Maryland was \$12,038,650. The number of churches was 1389.

FINANCES.

In 1874, the public debt of the State was \$11,095,019. The receipts of the Treasury for the fiscal year ending September 30th, 1874, were \$2,842,012, and the expenditures \$2,276,906.

In 1868, there were 32 National Banks, with a total capital of \$12,790,202, doing business in the State.

GOVERNMENT.

In this State every male citizen of the United States, twenty-one years old, who has resided one year in the State and six months in the county, is entitled to vote at the elections. The first Constitution of Maryland was adopted in August, 1776. It has been changed several times, the present Constitution having been adopted in 1867. The Government is vested in a Governor (elected by the people for four years), a Legislature, consisting of a Senate (of 24 members, elected for four years, one-half going out of office every two years), and House of Delegates (of 86 members, elected for two years), a Comptroller, and Treasurer, elected for two years, a Secretary of State, and an Attorney-General and Superintendent of Labor and Agriculture, elected for four years. The Governor, Legislature, Comptroller, Attorney-General, and Superintendent of Labor are chosen by the people, the Treasurer by the Legislature, and the Secretary of State and other officers appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate. No person holding an office under the United States, and no minister of the gospel is eligible to a seat in either house. The Legislature meets biennially. The general election is held in November.

The *Court of Appeals* consists of the Chief Judges of the first seven judicial districts of the State, and a judge from the city of Baltimore,

who is specially elected for that purpose. The Chief Justice is nominated by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate. Four of the judges constitute a quorum, but a decision cannot be rendered without the concurrence of at least three. The judge who tried the cause in the lower court, is not allowed to participate in the decision in this court. The court has appellate jurisdiction only, but that in all parts of the State. The other courts are the Circuit Courts of the counties, Orphans' Courts, and Justices' Courts, held by justices of the peace. Besides these are the several courts—Superior, Circuit, and Criminal—of Baltimore City.

Annapolis, in Anne Arundel county, is the capital.

For purposes of government, the State is divided into 22 counties.

HISTORY.

The first settlement in the State was made on Kent Island, in Chesapeake Bay, in the year 1631, by Captain William Clayborne, with a party of men from Virginia. On the 20th of June, the territory of Terra Mariæ, or Mary's Land, so named in honor of Queen Henrietta Maria of England, was granted by Charles I. to Cecilius Calvert, second Lord Baltimore. Calvert sent out a colony in two vessels, the Ark and the Dove, in November, 1633. This expedition reached St. Clement's Island on the 25th of March, 1634, and on the 27th founded the settlement of St. Mary's (in what is now St. Mary's county), on the mainland. The expedition was composed mainly of Catholic gentlemen, their families, and followers, and was in charge of Leonard Calvert, the brother of Lord Baltimore, who was appointed Governor. As soon as the colony was firmly established, other emigrants came from England in considerable numbers, and Clayborne, having refused to submit to the authority of the Governor, was driven from Kent Island. The Indians gave the settlers some trouble, but were promptly made to keep the peace. The first Legislative Assembly met in 1639.

In 1642, a band of Puritans, expelled from Virginia for refusing to conform to the worship of the Church of England, settled in Maryland, and were not long in giving evidences of their determination to disregard the authority of the rightful government of the province. Clayborne also came back and regained possession of Kent Island. The Governor made an effort to expel him, but he and his followers, aided by the Puritan settlers, not only defeated this effort, but seized

the government of the province, and forced Calvert to fly into Virginia, in 1644. Clayborne held the control of affairs until 1646, when Calvert entered the province at the head of a considerable force, and reëstablished the authority of the proprietary. In 1649, the Assembly enacted this wise statute: "Whereas the enforcing of the conscience in matters of religion hath frequently fallen out to be of dangerous consequences in those Commonwealths where it has been practised, and for the more quiet and peaceful government of this Province, and the better to preserve mutual love and amity among the inhabitants, no person within this Province, professing to believe in Jesus Christ, shall be anyways troubled, molested, or discountenanced for his or her religion, or in the free exercise thereof."

The Puritans gave great trouble to the colony. They had founded the town of Providence, which was afterwards called Annapolis, and were centred mainly in that part of the State. Finally they were granted the county of Charles. Upon the establishment of the Commonwealth in England, they insisted that the colony ought to submit to it, but the authorities proclaimed Charles II. When the Assembly met again, it was found that the Puritans were largely in excess of the followers of the Proprietary. In 1652, the Commissioners sent out from England by the Parliament arrived, and completely established the authority of the Commonwealth. Governor Stone, the representative of Lord Baltimore, was removed. One of the Commissioners referred to was no other than Clayborne, the old enemy of Lord Baltimore. Kent Island was given up to him, and he was also assigned Palmer Island, at the mouth of the Susquehanna River. In 1654, Lord Baltimore made a vigorous attempt by force of arms to regain his rights. A bitter contest was begun, and continued with alternate success and failure until March 25th, 1655, when Lord Baltimore's forces made an attack on Providence (Annapolis), and were repulsed with terrible slaughter by the Puritans, the whole force being killed or captured. Governor Stone was among the prisoners, all of whom were condemned to death. It is known that at least four of them were executed. The Puritans continued to hold the government until 1657, when Lord Baltimore's rights were restored, and his brother Philip Calvert appointed Governor. His family continued to hold the government until 1688, when William and Mary, having come to the throne of England, assumed the control of the Province. From this time the Governor was appointed by the Crown, until 1714, when Benedict Charles Calvert, the lineal heir of the first pro-

prietor, was granted the government again. Unlike the rest of his family, he was a Protestant, which was the cause of his succession to his hereditary rights.

In 1691, the seat of government was transferred to Providence, the name of which was changed to Annapolis. In 1695, a post route, the first in America, was established from the Potomac, through Annapolis, to Philadelphia. In 1729, the town of Baltimore was founded, Frederick City in 1745, and Georgetown (now in the District of Columbia) in 1751. By 1756 the population of the colony had increased to 154,188 souls, of whom over 40,000 were negroes. The colony also increased in material prosperity. By the year mentioned above, the annual export of tobacco was 30,000 hogsheads, and, in spite of the efforts of the home government to prevent it, there were 8 furnaces and 9 forges for smelting copper in operation in the province.

During the wars with France, Maryland contributed liberally to the common cause. Between 1754 and 1758, her western frontier suffered severely from the savages, whose outrages were stopped only by the capture of Fort Duquesne.

The colony offered a spirited resistance to the injustice of the home Government, and promptly made common cause in this matter with the other provinces. The outbreak of the Revolution caused the overthrow of the proprietary government, which patriotically submitted to the necessity, and in August, 1776, a Convention of the people adopted a State Constitution, which went into immediate operation. The State made liberal contributions of men and money for the maintenance of the war. The "Maryland Line" won a name in this struggle, which is one of the most precious legacies they have left to their children. Congress assembled at Baltimore, and afterwards at Annapolis, towards the close of the war, and it was at the latter place that Washington resigned his commission, on the 23d of December, 1783. Upon the close of the war, great and successful efforts were made to settle the western part of the State. Maryland ratified the Federal Constitution April 28th, 1788.

During the war of 1812, the shores of the Chesapeake Bay were brutally ravaged by a British fleet commanded by Admiral Cockburn. Frenchtown, Havre de Grace, Fredericktown, and Georgetown were sacked and burned. The militia of the State were defeated at Bladensburg, where they attempted to arrest the march of the British upon Washington City, in 1814. They repulsed the same force

North Point, near Baltimore, on the 13th of September, 1814, and killed the British Commander, General Ross; and on the 14th repulsed the attack of the enemy's fleet upon Fort McHenry, which protected the entrance to the city of Baltimore.

When the question of establishing a seat of Government was brought up, near the close of the last century, Maryland granted to the United States 60 square miles of her territory, lying near the falls of the Potomac. Virginia united with her, and added enough of her own territory to make the grant consist of 100 square miles. The offer was accepted by the United States, and the District of Columbia was erected. The seat of Government was transferred to it in 1800.

At the outbreak of the late war, it was generally supposed that Maryland would secede from the Union, and join the other States of the South in their attempt to establish a new Confederacy. This course would undoubtedly have been pursued, had the State been free to act as it wished; but at the first opening of the struggle, it was promptly occupied by the forces of the General Government. During the war, it was nominally allowed to control its own affairs, but was really held down by force until the cessation of hostilities. It was invaded three times by a Confederate army, and, with the District of Columbia, formed the base from which the operations of the Federal Army of the Potomac were conducted. The battles of South Mountain and Antietam, or Sharpsburg, and Monocacy Bridge, near Frederick City, were fought in the western part of the State; and Maryland Heights, opposite Harper's Ferry, on the Potomac, bore a prominent part in the military operations around that place. Raiding parties entered the State repeatedly from Virginia, penetrating upon one occasion beyond Baltimore, and a number of minor conflicts occurred between these parties and detachments of the Union army. During the war, the State furnished a considerable force to the army and navy of the United States; but a much larger number of native Marylanders crossed the Potomac and entered the Southern army.

Slavery was abolished by a State Convention in 1864.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the most important cities and towns in the State are, Baltimore, Frederick, Cumberland, Cambridge, Easton, and Chestertown.

ANNAPOLIS,

The capital of the State, is situated in Anne Arundel county, on the south or right bank of the Severn River, 2 miles from its entrance into Chesapeake Bay. It is beautifully located in full view of the bay, of which it commands extensive and picturesque views. It is 30 miles south by east from Baltimore, and 37 miles east by north from Washington. It is one of the oldest towns in the country, and bears marks of its antiquity on every hand. The buildings are generally in the style of a century ago, though the city contains many handsome modern edifices. As a rule the town is well built. The plan of the city bears some resemblance to that of the National Capital, all of the streets radiating from two points, the State House and the Episcopal church. The city bears ample evidence of the wealth and prosperity which it once possessed in many ancient and extensive mansions, with large ranges of offices and stables, now gone to decay, and in some cases uninhabited.

The *State House* stands near the centre of the city, and is a venerable edifice of brick, with a lofty dome and cupola. It is situated in a small park on the highest point of the city, and contains the halls of the Legislature, the offices of the Governor and Secretary of State, and the State Library. The hall now occupied by the State Senate was used for the sessions of the Continental Congress near the close of the Revolution, and it was here that Washington resigned his commission as Commander-in-Chief of the American armies. The hall is now ornamented with a large painting commemorating that event. It is from the pencil of Mr. Edwin White, of New York. To the east of the State House, stands the official mansion of the Governor of Maryland, who is obliged to reside here during his term of office.

Annapolis is lighted with gas, but many of the buildings still use oil lamps. It is connected with Baltimore and Washington City by a railway, and with the former city by a line of steamers. It was formerly a place of considerable trade, but is now important only as the capital of the State. It contains 6 churches, and 2 newspaper offices, and is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870 the population was 5744.

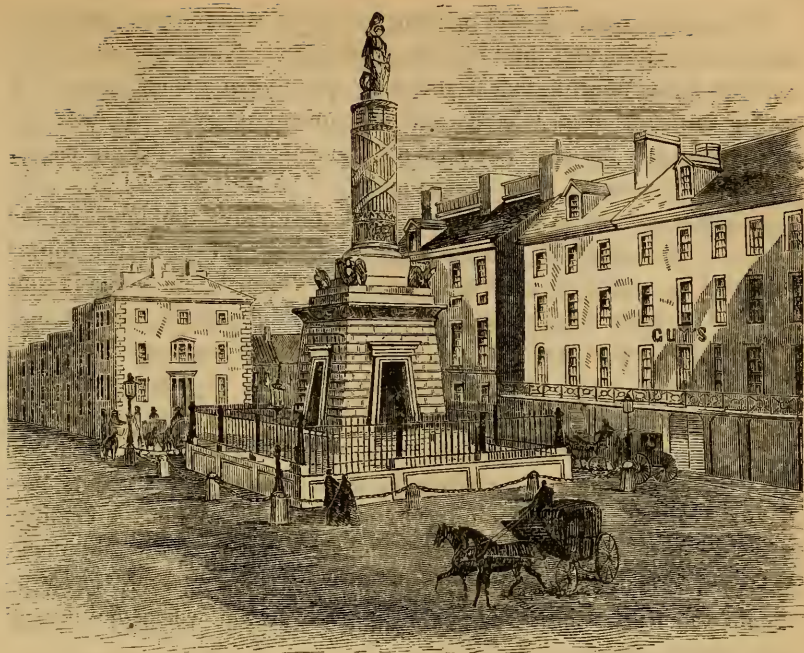
The city is well supplied with public and private schools. *St. John's College* is a flourishing institution, supported in part by the State. It was closed during the civil war, but is now in a fair way to regain its former prosperity.

Annapolis is the seat of the *Naval Academy of the United States*, established during the administration of President Polk, the Hon. Geo. Bancroft being Secretary of the Navy. It is located in the northeast part of the city, immediately on the shore of the Severn, and is designed for the education and training of officers of the United States Navy.

Annapolis was founded about 1649, and was at first called Providence. The events of its early history have been already related in the sketch of the history of the State. In 1708 it was chartered as a city, and named Annapolis, in honor of Queen Anne, who had bestowed several valuable presents upon the town. It was for many years the most important city in Maryland, but was at length surpassed by Baltimore, to which city its large trade was transferred.

BALTIMORE,

The largest and most important city of the State, and the sixth city of the United States, is situated in Baltimore county, on the north side of the Patapsco River, about 12 miles from its entrance into Chesapeake Bay. It is 38 miles northeast from Washington, 98 miles southwest from Philadelphia, and 200 miles from the ocean by the course of the Chesapeake. The city is built partly along the river shore, and partly along a range of hills overhanging the Patapsco and commanding distant views of the bay. Below Baltimore the river widens into a broad estuary, several miles in width. Some portions of the city are 100 feet above tide water, and the view of Baltimore from the river is very beautiful and attractive. This rolling character of the ground enables the city to provide the best system of sewerage in the country, and does much to render Baltimore a remarkably clean city. "Perhaps no city in the United States has such a picturesque sight as Baltimore, covering as it does a number of eminences, which, however inconvenient they may be for the residents, furnish a pleasant variety for the stranger. If the visitor ascends the Washington Monument, in the northern part of the city, on a hill, itself 100 feet above tide, he has one of the finest panoramas furnished by any city in the Union. Immediately beneath and around him are some of the most capacious streets, lined with residences rarely equalled in elegance, size, and position. To the north and northwest are the newer and finer buildings, constituting the fashionable part of the city, while to the south lies the great centre of trade; a little to the southeast is the harbor, and beyond it Federal Hill; while far in the



BATTLE MONUMENT.

distance, but nearly in the same direction, stretches the beautiful arm of the bay on which Baltimore stands. To the east and southeast, across Jones' Falls (a small creek which divides the city into two portions), lie the Old Town and Fell's Point; and to the west the newer portions, which are extending rapidly. The view is varied by the dome of the Catholic cathedral, the Unitarian church, and the Exchange, by the Shot-tower, by the Battle Monument, and by the steeples and towers of the various churches scattered in all directions; the whole girt on the northwest and east by beautiful hills crowned with a natural growth of trees. Although the site of the city is such as to cause irregularity in some of the streets, the different sections are laid out with great uniformity. Baltimore street, the fashionable promenade, and seat of the retail and jobbing business, divides the city into two nearly equal portions, the larger part lying to the north. Charles street, crossing this at right angles, also divides the city into two nearly equal parts, the portion called North Charles street being mostly occupied with elegant residences, and South Charles street, between Baltimore and Lombard streets, with extensive wholesale warehouses.

“From the number and prominence of its monuments, Baltimore has been denominated the ‘Monumental City.’ The most remarkable of these is the Washington Monument, standing in a small, open area at the intersection of Charles and Monument streets. Its base, 50 feet square and 20 high, supports a doric column 176½ feet in height, which is surmounted by a colossal statue of Washington, 16 feet high, giving its summit an elevation of 312½ feet above the level of the harbor. The shaft, 20 feet square at the base, and 14 at the top, is ascended by means of a winding stairway within. The whole is constructed of white marble, and cost \$200,000. Battle Monument, also a beautiful structure of marble, is situated in Monument Square, in Calvert street, near Lexington street. From the base, which is square and ornamented with various devices, rises a facial column, 18 feet high, on the bands of which are inscribed the names of those who fell while defending the city from the attack of the British, September 12th, 1814. This is surmounted by a beautiful statue of the Goddess of Liberty, 7½ feet high, making the entire height of the monument 52½ feet. Another object of much interest to strangers is the Merchants’ Shot-tower, the highest, it is said, in the world, having an elevation of 246 feet.” *

The public buildings are handsome. The *City Hall*, on Holliday street, is a magnificent building of white marble, covering an entire square; the *U. S. Court House*, on Fayette street, is a fine granite structure; and the *U. S. Custom House* and *Post Office*, on Lombard and Gay streets, the *City Jail*, the *Maryland* and *Peabody Institutes*, the latter of white marble, and the *Masonic Hall*, also of white marble, are imposing structures. The depots of the Baltimore and Ohio and the Northern Central Railways are among the handsomest buildings of the city. There are also many elegant buildings of stone, iron, and marble, used for mercantile purposes, which must be included among the ornaments of the city. Many of the churches are also worthy of notice in this connection.

The educational, literary, and scientific institutions of Baltimore have always been amongst the best in the land. The public schools were famous when those of the other large American cities were striving for the excellence they have since attained. In 1870, the city contained 119 schools, attended by 23,913 pupils. In the same year the city paid \$26,322 for schools for colored children. The private

* Lippincott’s Gazetteer.

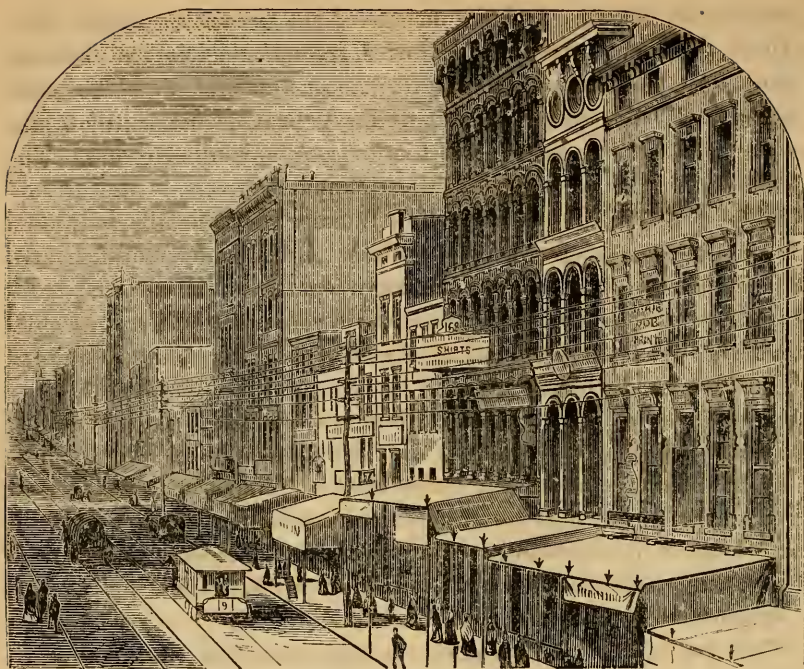
schools are numerous, of a high character, and are well attended. The higher schools are the *University of Maryland*, the Medical Department of which was founded in 1807; *Loyola College*; the *Theological School*, formerly connected with St. Mary's (R. C.) College; the *Baltimore College of Pharmacy*; and the *College of Dental Surgeons*. The *Peabody Institute*, on Charles and Monument streets, is the gift of George Peabody, and is devoted to literary and scientific purposes. It contains a good and growing library, and a gallery of fine arts. The *Athæneum*, St. Paul and Saratoga streets, contains the *Mercantile Library*, about 20,000 volumes, and the *Baltimore Library*, 15,000 volumes. It is also occupied by the *Historical Society of Maryland*, which possesses a library of 1000 volumes, and a collection of papers and other relics. An annual exhibition of paintings is held in the rooms of this society. The *Maryland Institute* occupies a large building on Baltimore street near Jones' Falls. The lower part is used as a market. The upper part is an immense hall, in which an annual exhibition of the mechanic arts is held. It possesses a fine library. The reading room belonging to the Board of Trade is supplied with newspapers from all parts of the world.

The benevolent and charitable institutions are the *Maryland Hospital for the Insane*, situated on a hill in the eastern part of the city; the *Mount Hope Institution*, for the same purpose, under the charge of the Sisters of Charity; the *Baltimore Infirmary*, with beds for 300 patients; the *Maryland Institution for the Instruction of the Blind*; the *Church Home and Infirmary*, connected with the Episcopal Church; the *Union Protestant Infirmary*; the *Aged Women's Home*; the *Old Men's Home*; the *Home of the Friendless*; the *House of the Good Shepherd*, for the reformation of fallen women; the *Almshouse*, and four *Dispensaries*.

The prisons and reformatory establishments are the *State Penitentiary*, the *City Jail*, a handsome granite structure, and the *House of Refuge*, for the reformation of juvenile delinquents.

The hotels of Baltimore are good. The principal are the City Hotel (Barnum's), and the Gilmore and Eutaw Houses.

Baltimore is very far behind its eastern rivals in many things. The streets are badly paved, cobble stones predominating, and the sidewalks are of brick. While the city contains a large number of magnificent buildings, its principal thoroughfare, Baltimore street, cannot compare with the corresponding streets of either New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Chicago, or St. Louis. In the private portions, the



BALTIMORE STREET.

principal material used is brick, with white marble trimmings. Brown stone is now becoming common in the wealthier sections. The city is noted for the large number of small dwellings which it contains. These furnish homes for the working classes, who live in greater comfort and privacy than in almost any other large city in the world. Few houses contain more than one family. The more fashionable quarters are beautifully built up, and will compare favorably with any city in the country.

Street railway lines connect the various parts of the city. The cars of every line touch Baltimore street below Calvert and above Gay street, and thus bring all points in connection with the business centre. Similar lines connect the city with its principal suburbs.

There are between 160 and 170 churches in Baltimore. Some of these are very costly and beautiful. Baltimore is the See of a Roman Catholic Archbishop, who is the Primate of the United States.

The city contains several parks and pleasure grounds. These are Union, Franklin, and Lafayette squares, and Patterson and Druid Hill parks. Patterson Park contains 36 acres, and embraces the

earthworks thrown up for the defence of the city in the war of 1812. Druid Hill Park contains 550 acres, and abounds in fine trees and shrubbery. It is naturally one of the most beautiful of the American parks, and has been greatly improved and ornamented since its purchase by the city. It is situated in the northern suburbs of the city, beyond the extreme end of Madison Avenue.

The cemeteries are Greenmount, Loudon Park, Baltimore, Mount Olivet, Mount Carmel, and the Western. Greenmount is very beautiful, and contains many handsome monuments.

The theatres of Baltimore are behind those of the other large cities of the Union. The principal are the Holliday Street Theatre and the Concordia Opera House.

Baltimore is the terminus of five railway lines, which connect it with all parts of the country. The Baltimore and Ohio Railway is one of the great trunk lines to the West, and one of the finest works in the world. By means of these it conducts an enormous trade with the West, and with the interior of the State of Virginia. Steamboats ply between Baltimore and the principal towns on the Chesapeake Bay and the rivers emptying into it, and a large coasting trade is carried on from this port. A line of first-class steamers connects the city with the port of Bremen, in Germany, and is bringing a large portion of the emigration from that country through the port of Baltimore. Baltimore enjoys very great facilities for commerce from its situation, and needs but the energy and enterprise of its former days to be a more important commercial city than it is. In 1864, the arrivals at the port of Baltimore, not counting the bay craft, were 1143 steamers, 38 ships, 137 barks, 197 brigs, 1025 schooners, making a total of 2540 vessels. In the same year, the foreign imports of Baltimore were \$6,076,300; and the exports were \$12,362,448. The registered tonnage for the same year was 45,198; enrolled and licensed, 203,497; making a total of 248,695 tons. By means of the Baltimore and Ohio and Northern Central Railways, a heavy coal trade is carried on through Baltimore. Large quantities of this are shipped from Locust Point.

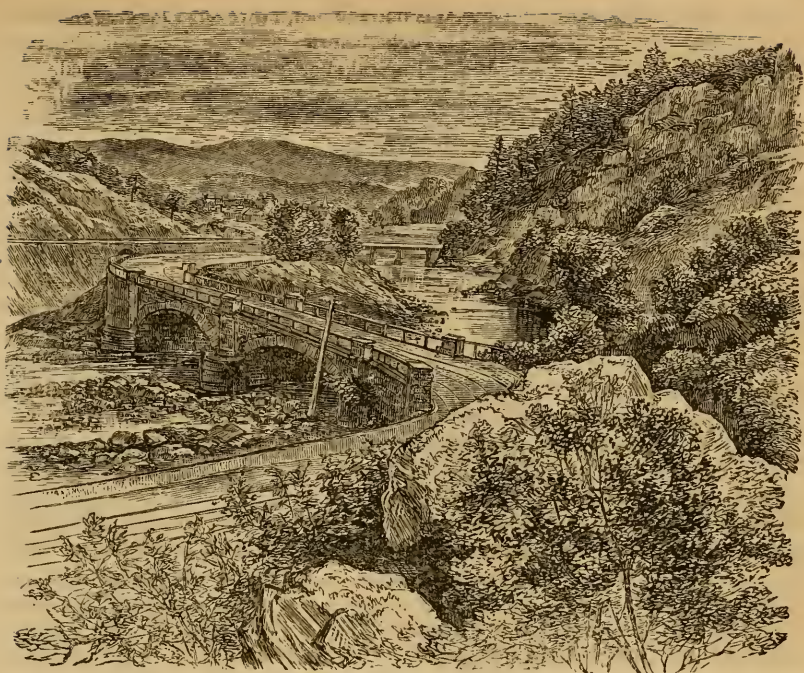
Baltimore is largely engaged in manufactures, Jones' Falls furnishing excellent water-power. Some of the largest machine shops in the country are located here. The principal manufactures are cotton and iron goods, machinery, steam engines, agricultural implements, and flour.

The city is abundantly supplied with water from Swann Lake and

Jones' Falls. The water is brought a distance of seven miles to the city reservoirs, which are from 110 to 150 feet above tide-water. The city is lighted with gas of an excellent quality, and is provided with a police and fire alarm telegraph, an efficient police force, and an admirable steam fire department. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 267,354.

In the year 1729, the General Assembly of Maryland took measures for "erecting a town on the north side of the Patapsco in Baltimore county." The site had been settled as early as 1682, by David Jones, who gave his name to the small stream which now flows through the city of Baltimore, dividing it into "old" and "new" town. On the 12th of January, 1730, a town of 60 acres of land was laid out by the county surveyor and commissioners, and called Baltimore in honor of Cecilius Calvert Lord Baltimore. "In the same year, William Fell, a ship-carpenter, having purchased a tract east of the falls, called it Fell's Point, after his own name, which it still bears. In 1732, a new town of 10 acres in 20 lots, was laid out on the east of the falls, and called Jonestown, in honor of David Jones, the first settler. The name has long been forgotten, and as a settlement existed there before that of Baltimore, it was called 'old town.' Jonestown was united to Baltimore in 1745, dropping its own name, and two years afterward Baltimore, which properly lay up about the head of the 'basin,' near the foot of the present South Charles street, was extended as far eastwardly as Jones' Falls, under an express provision that there was nothing in the Act recognizing a right to 'elect delegates to the Assembly as representatives from the town.' This was the earliest manifestation of that singular jealousy, which has ever since been shown in the Legislature by the Maryland county members against the city of Baltimore."

In 1755, Baltimore contained but 25 houses and 200 inhabitants. In 1767, it was made the county seat. In 1769, the first fire engine was introduced. In 1773, William Goddard began the publication of the "Maryland Journal and Baltimore Advertiser." In the same year a line of stage coaches and a line of sailing packets were established between Baltimore and Philadelphia; and a theatre was built on Albemarle street. In 1775, Baltimore contained 564 houses, and 5934 inhabitants. In 1776, Philadelphia having fallen into the hands of the British, Congress removed to Baltimore, and held its sessions in a building on the southeast corner of Baltimore and Liberty streets. In 1784, the streets were lighted with oil lamps, and



SCENE ON BALTIMORE AND OHIO RAILWAY.

3 constables and 14 watchmen were appointed "for the security of the town." In 1796, Baltimore was incorporated as a city, the population being about 20,000. In 1800, the population was 26,514. The city was now highly prosperous, and was possessed of a large and thriving trade with all parts of the world. In 1814, it was attacked by the British, who were repulsed at North Point and at Fort McHenry, by both land and water. In 1829, the first public school was opened. In 1813, the first steamboat, called the Chesapeake, was placed upon the line to Philadelphia *viâ* Frenchtown and Newcastle, Del. On the 4th of July, 1828, the corner-stone of the great Baltimore and Ohio Railway was laid by the venerable Charles Carroll of Carrollton.

MISCELLANIES.

THE BALTIMORE RIOT.

A few days after the declaration of war, the town of Baltimore was seriously disturbed. Some harsh strictures on the conduct of Government having appeared in a newspaper of that city, entitled the *Federal Republican*, the resentment of the opposite party was shown by destroying the office and press of that establish-

ment. The commotion excited by this outrage had, however, in a great measure subsided, and the transaction was brought before a criminal court for investigation. But events more alarming and tragical shortly afterwards succeeded. On the 26th of July, Mr. Hanson, the leading editor of the obnoxious journal, who had deemed it prudent to leave the disordered city, returned, accompanied by his political adherents; amongst whom was General Henry Lee, of Alexandria, an officer distinguished in the Revolution for his bravery in partisan warfare at the head of a legion of cavalry, afterwards Governor of Virginia, and a representative from that State in the Congress of the Federal Government. Determined to re-commence the paper, by first printing it in Georgetown, in the District of Columbia, and then transmitting it to Baltimore for distribution, a house was for this purpose occupied in Charles street, secured against external violence, and guarded by a party well provided for defence. On the 28th, papers were accordingly issued. These contained severe animadversions against the Mayor, police, and the people of Baltimore, for the depredations committed on the establishment in the preceding month, and were generally circulated throughout the city.

In the course of the day it became known that Mr. Hanson was in the new office in Charles street, and it was early whispered that the building would be assailed. A number of citizens who espoused his opinions went, therefore, to the house, and joined in its protection. Towards the evening, a crowd of boys collected, who, after using opprobrious epithets to those within, began to throw stones at the windows; and about the same time a person on the pavement, endeavoring to dissuade the youths from mischief, was severely wounded by something ponderous thrown from the house. They were cautioned from the windows to desist; but still continued to assail the place with stones. Two muskets were then fired from the upper story; charged, it was supposed, with blank cartridges, to deter them from further violence; immediately the crowd in the street greatly increased; the boys were displaced by men; the sashes of the lower windows were broken, and attempts made to force the door. Muskets, in quick succession, were discharged from the house; some military arrived to disperse the crowd; several shots were fired in return; and at length a Dr. Gale was killed by a shot from the office door. The irritation of the mob was increased. They planted a cannon against the house, but were restrained from discharging it by the timely arrival of an additional military force, and an agreement that the persons in the house would surrender to the civil authority. Accordingly, early in the following morning, having received assurances on which they thought themselves safe in relying, they surrendered, and were conducted to the county jail, contiguous to the city. The party consisted of about 20 persons; amongst whom were General Lee, General James Lingan, and Mr. Hanson.

The Mayor directed the Sheriff to use every precaution to secure the doors of the prison, and the commander of the troops to employ a competent force to preserve the peace. In the evening everything bore the appearance of tranquillity; and the soldiers, by the consent of the magistrate, were dismissed. But shortly after dark, a great crowd of disorderly persons reassembled about the jail, and manifested an intention to force it open. On being apprised of this, the Mayor hastened to the spot, and, with the aid of a few other gentlemen, for a while prevented the execution of the design: but they were at length overpowered by the number and violence of the assailants. The Mayor was carried away by force, and the turnkey compelled to open the doors. A tragedy ensued, which cannot be described: it can be imagined only by those who are familiar with scenes of

blood. General Lingan was killed; eleven were beaten and mangled with weapons of every description, such as stones, bludgeons, and sledge-hammers, and then thrown as dead, into one pile, outside of the door. A few of the prisoners fortunately escaped through the crowd: Mr. Hanson, fainting from his repeated wounds, was carried by a gentleman (of opposite political sentiments), at the hazard of his own life, across the adjoining river, whence he with difficulty reached the dwelling of a friend.

No effectual inquisition was ever made into this signal violation of the peace, nor punishment inflicted on the guilty. The leaders, on both sides, underwent trials; but, owing to the inflammation of public feeling, they were acquitted.

ANECDOTE OF CHARLES CARROLL.

The name of Carroll is the only one on the Declaration to which the *residence* of the signer is appended. The reason why it was done in this case is understood to be as follows: The patriots who signed that document, did it, almost literally, with ropes about their necks, it being generally supposed that they would, if unsuccessful, be hung as rebels. When Carroll had signed his name, some one at his elbow remarked, "You'll get clear—there are several of that name—they will not know which to take."—"Not so," replied he, and immediately added, "of Carrollton."

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Area,	60 Square Miles
Population in 1860,	75,080
Population in 1870,	131,706

THE District of Columbia originally embraced an area of ten miles square, but the portion ceded by Virginia was restored to that State in 1846, so that the present District comprises only the grant made to the General Government by the State of Maryland. It lies on the east side of the Potomac at the head of tide water, 160 miles from the mouth of the river. It includes the cities of Washington and Georgetown, and is the seat of the Federal Government of the Republic. In its physical features it is like those portions of the State of Maryland immediately surrounding it.

Until recently it was governed exclusively by Congress, and had no voice in its own affairs. Early in the year 1871, however, the two Houses of Congress passed a bill, which received the signature of the President on the 21st of February, making great changes in the affairs of the District. By this law the District of Columbia has been given the management of its own affairs. The District is organized as a Territory, with a Government, consisting of a Governor and an Assembly. The Governor is appointed by the President of the United States by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. He holds office for four years and until his successor shall be appointed and qualified. He must be a citizen of the District for at least 12 months previous to his appointment, and have the qualifications of a voter. His duties and powers are similar to those of the Governor of a Territory of the United States. The Assembly

consists of a Council and a House of Delegates. The Council is composed of 11 members, of whom 2 are residents of the City of Georgetown, 2 residents of the District outside of Washington and Georgetown, and 7 residents of the City of Washington. They are appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. They must have the qualifications of voters to be eligible to their office. They hold office for two years, five and six going out on alternate years. The House of Delegates consists of 22 members, 2 from each of the 11 districts into which the District of Columbia is divided. They are elected by the people, and must have the qualifications prescribed for members of the Council.

The right of suffrage is conferred upon all male citizens of the United States above the age of 21 years, who have resided in the District for a period of 12 months previous to an election, except persons of unsound mind and those convicted of infamous crimes. The Assembly has no power to abridge or limit the right of suffrage.

The Government must confine itself entirely to the affairs of the District of Columbia. The inhabitants of the District do not vote for President or Vice-President of the United States. They send one delegate to Congress, who is entitled to the same rights and privileges in that body as are exercised and enjoyed by the Delegates from the several Territories of the United States to the House of Representatives. He is by virtue of his position a member of the House Committee for the District of Columbia. His term of office is 2 years.

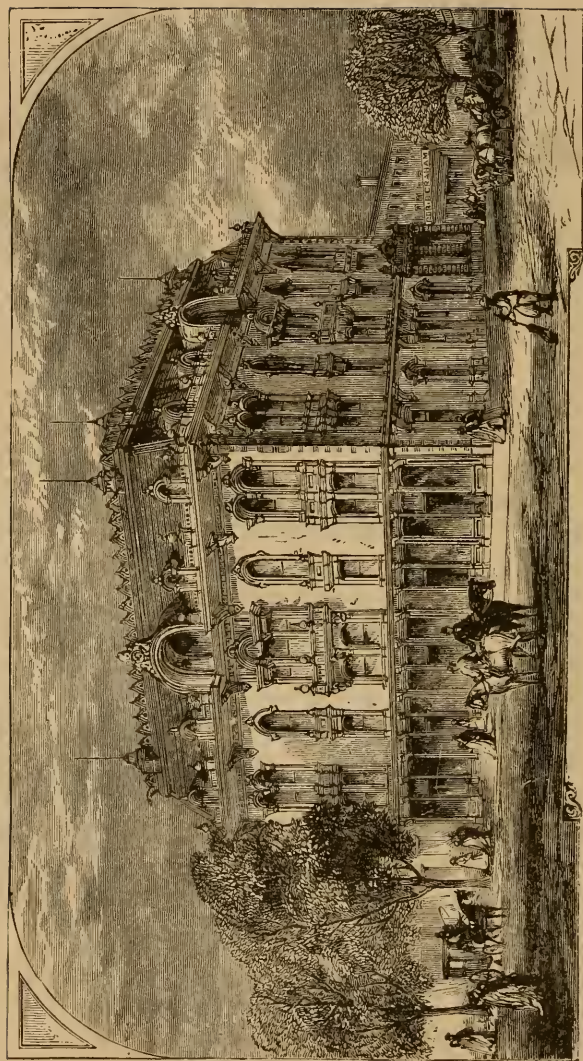
All the acts of the Legislative Assembly are subject at all times to repeal or modification by the Congress of the United States, which body retains its powers of legislation over the District as formerly.

By this law the charters formerly held by the Cities of Washington and Georgetown are repealed, and all offices of those corporations abolished. The cities are brought directly under the control of the District Government, which succeeds to the possession of the municipal property. The cities retain their names and boundaries, but no longer exist as separate corporations, the government of both being confided to the authorities of the District.

The Supreme Court of the District of Columbia is the highest judicial tribunal. It consists of four justices (one of whom is designated as the Chief Justice), appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate of the United States. The other Courts are the District and Criminal Courts, below which are the Justices of the Peace.



COLUMBIAN DEAF AND DUMB INSTITUTION.



NEW BUILDING OF THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION.

HISTORY.

After the close of the Revolution, Congress continued to meet in the City of Philadelphia. In June, 1783, a band of mutinous soldiers broke into the hall where Congress was in session, and in a grossly insulting manner demanded the "back pay" due them, which amounted to a considerable sum. This insult was felt deeply by the members, and it was agreed by common consent that it would be better for the seat of Government to be removed to a part of the country where the danger of a repetition of the occurrence would not be so imminent. Elbridge Gerry introduced a resolution authorizing the building of a Federal City, on the banks of the Delaware or Potomac, and the erection of buildings suitable for the use of Congress, provided a good location and the proper amount of land could be obtained on either of those rivers. This resolution was carried on the 7th of October, 1783, but was amended by a provision for buildings on both rivers, and was repealed on the 26th of April, 1784. Congress met at Trenton, N. J., in October, 1784, and appointed three commissioners, who were authorized to lay out a district between two and three miles square on the Delaware, for a Federal City. The next January, Congress met in New York, and efforts were made to locate the district on the Potomac, but without success.

In September, 1787, the present Constitution of the United States was adopted, which provides that Congress shall have power "to exercise exclusive legislation, in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of Government of the United States."

This clause of the Constitution fixed definitely the size of the new district, and was the first real step towards its acquisition. Appreciating the advantage of having the Capital within its limits, the State of Maryland, through its Legislature, on the 23d of December, 1788, offered to Congress "any district (not exceeding ten miles square) which the Congress may fix upon and accept for the seat of Government of the United States." The matter was debated in Congress in 1789.

It was agreed on all sides that the district ought to be located in a section of the country easy of access from all parts of the Union, and ought to be as central as was consistent with the wealth and population of the section chosen. The North and the South—for the sec-

tional division of the country had been made even at that early day—each desired to secure the location of the new city within its own limits. The former demanded that the capital should be built on the banks of the Susquehanna, and the latter made a similar demand in favor of the Delaware or Potomac. New York, Philadelphia, Germantown, Havre de Grace, Wright's Ferry, Baltimore, and Conococheague (now Washington City), each had its partisans. The controversy ran very high, and came near resulting in a serious quarrel between the States. On the 5th of September, 1789, the House of Representatives passed a resolution, "That the permanent seat of Government of the United States ought to be at some convenient place on the banks of the Susquehanna, in the State of Pennsylvania." This resolution gave great offence to the Southern members, and even Mr. Madison went so far as to declare that had such an action on the part of Congress been foreseen, Virginia would not have ratified the Constitution. The matter was made worse by the immediate passage of a bill by the House for the purpose of carrying the resolution into effect. The vote stood, 31 to 19. The Senate amended the bill by inserting Germantown, Pennsylvania, instead of the location on the Susquehanna, which amendment was accepted by the House. The House further amended the Act by providing that the laws of Pennsylvania should continue in force in the new district until Congress should order otherwise. The Senate decided to postpone the consideration of this amendment until the next session, and the matter went over. Germantown was thus actually chosen as the Federal City, and it needed only the consent of the Senate to the last-mentioned amendment to make the transaction complete.

Thus far none of the States but Maryland had taken any official action in this matter. The South was greatly excited over the course of Congress, all of the Northern States were not pleased, and the matter was felt to be a very serious danger to the harmony of the new Confederation. On the 3d of December, 1789, the General Assembly of Virginia passed an Act ceding a district to Congress on the banks of the Potomac. The coöperation of Maryland was asked in inducing Congress to accept the offer, and a sum not exceeding \$120,000 was pledged for the erection of public buildings, if Maryland, on her part, would contribute a sum not less than two-fifths of that amount for the same purpose. Maryland at once agreed to the request of Virginia, and pledged herself for the money. Other States now made offers of territory to Congress, but no immediate action upon the subject was taken by that body.

The great question which at that time occupied the attention of the people, was the funding of the public debt. Congress was divided upon the subject. An amendment had been presented to the House, and had been rejected, providing that the General Government should assume the State debts to the amount of \$21,000,000. This question had become very closely interwoven with that of selecting a Federal district. The Northern members were in favor of the assumption, but did not desire the location of the district in the South; and the Southern members, while divided upon the assumption question, were to a man in favor of having the offers of Maryland and Virginia accepted. Matters were at a dead halt, and the future seemed ominous.

Jefferson was at this time Secretary of State, and Hamilton Secretary of the Treasury. Both were anxious to avert the danger which the vexed questions threatened, and after discussing the matter confidentially, came to the conclusion that a compromise was necessary. Hamilton urged that the South should consent to the assumption of the State debts by the Government, and declared that he felt sure if they would do this, the North would agree to locate the capital on the Potomac. It was decided that Jefferson should ask the members whose votes would accomplish this, to dine with him the next day, and lay the matter before them. The dinner was given, the plan proposed by Hamilton discussed, and a sufficient number of votes pledged for the assumption bill. Hamilton undertook to win over the Northern members to the capital scheme, and succeeded. The assumption bill became a law, and Congress definitely accepted the offers of Maryland and Virginia.

On the 3d of March, 1791, Congress amended the original Act so as to include the city of Alexandria in the district, and the following proclamation was issued by President Washington, establishing the new district:

"Whereas, By a proclamation, bearing date the 14th of January of this present year, and in pursuance of certain Acts of the States of Maryland and Virginia, and of the Congress of the United States, therein mentioned, certain lines of experiment were directed to be run in the neighborhood of Georgetown, in Maryland, for the purpose of determining the location of a part of the territory of ten miles square, for the permanent seat of the Government of the United States; and a certain part was directed to be located within the said lines of experiment, on both sides of the Potomac, and above the limits of the Eastern Branch, prescribed by the said Act of Congress;

"And Congress, by an amendatory Act, passed on the 3d day of this present month of March, have given further authority to the President of the United States to make any part of the said territory, below the said limit, and above the mouth of Hunting Creek, a part of the said District, so as to include a convenient part of the Eastern Branch of the lands lying on the lower side thereof, and also the town of Alexandria ;

"Now, therefore, for the purpose of amending and completing the location of the whole of the said territory of ten miles square, in conformity with the said amendatory Act of Congress, I do hereby declare and make known that the whole of the said territory shall be located and included within the four lines following, that is to say :

"Beginning at Jones' Point, being the upper cape of Hunting Creek, in Virginia, and at an angle in the outset of 45° west of north, and running in a direct line ten miles, for the first line ; then beginning again at the same Jones' Point, and running another direct line at a right angle with the first, across the Potomac, ten miles, for the second line ; then, from the terminations of the said first and second lines, running two other direct lines, of ten miles each, the one crossing the Eastern Branch aforesaid, and the other the Potomac, and meeting each other in a point.

"And I do accordingly direct the Commissioners named under the authority of the said first-mentioned Act of Congress to proceed forthwith to have the said four lines run, and by proper metes and bounds defined and limited, and thereof to make due report under their hands and seals ; and the territory so to be located, defined, and limited, shall be the whole territory accepted by the said Act of Congress as the District for the permanent seat of the Government of the United States.

"In testimony whereof, I have caused the seal of the United States to be affixed to these presents, and signed the same with my hand. Done at Georgetown aforesaid, the 30th day of March, in the year of our Lord, 1791, and of the Independence of the United States, the fifteenth.

GEORGE WASHINGTON."

The District was laid out by three Commissioners, appointed by the President, in accordance with the Act of Congress, in January, 1791. These Commissioners were Thomas Johnson, David Stuart, and Daniel Carroll. On the 15th of April, in the same year, they superintended the laying of the corner-stone of the District, at Jones'

Point, near Alexandria. This act was performed with the ceremonies prescribed by the Masonic ritual. The District was named Columbia, in honor of the great discoverer of the continent.

Having thus acquired a Federal District, and having definitely located its boundaries, the next step was to lay off the new city which was to be the capital of the nation. This task was confided to Major L'Enfant, a distinguished engineer, who was informed by the Commissioners that the new city would bear the name of "Washington."

In February, 1871, the Government of the District was reorganized, as has been already described.

The cities of the District are Washington and Georgetown.

WASHINGTON CITY,

The capital of the United States, is situated on the left bank of the Potomac River, between that stream and a tributary called the East Branch, a few miles below the head of tide water. It is 295 miles from the ocean, 226 miles southwest of New York, 432 miles southwest of Boston, 544 miles northeast of Charleston, 1203 miles northeast of New Orleans, 497 miles east of Cincinnati, 763 miles southeast of Chicago, 1200 miles northeast of St. Louis, and 2000 miles in an air line northeast of San Francisco. The Capitol, which is nearly the centre of the city, is located in $38^{\circ} 52' 20''$ N. latitude, and $77^{\circ} 0' 15''$ W. longitude from Greenwich. The city has connections by railroad and steamboat with all parts of the continent, and telegraphic lines extend from it all over the world. The Potomac is navigable for ships of the largest size as far as Greenleaf's Point, the site of the Arsenal and Penitentiary. The British fleet anchored here in 1814, and the frigate Minnesota was launched at the Navy Yard some years ago, and carried down the stream after being equipped. The situation of the city is advantageous in many respects. Its front is washed by the Potomac, on the east is the East Branch, and on the left a stream called Rock Creek, which separates it from Georgetown. "The general altitude of the city plot is 40 feet above the river, but this is diversified by irregular elevations, which serve to give variety and commanding sites for public buildings. The plot is slightly amphitheatrical, the President's House, on the west, standing on one of the sides, and the Capitol on the other, while the space between verges towards a point near the river. The President's House and the Capitol stand centrally with regard to the whole, though situated at the distance of a mile and a half from each other, the former 44 feet

above the Potomac, and the latter 72 feet. The summit of the hill on which the Capitol stands is the commencement of a plain stretching east, while that to the north of the President's House tends westward."

Washington is laid off in a peculiar manner. According to the original plan, the Capitol was designed to be the centre of the city, and the starting point of the whole system of streets. This plan has been adhered to in the main, though it has been altered in some respects. The streets running east and west are designated by letters. They are divided into two classes or sets—those north of the Capitol, and those south of it. Thus, the first street north of the Capitol is A Street North, and the first street south of it, A Street South; the next is B Street, North or South, and so on. The streets running north and south are numbered. Thus, the street immediately east of the Capitol is First Street East, and that immediately west of it, First Street West, and so on. These distinctions of North, South, East, and West are most important, as forgetfulness of them is apt to lead to very great blunders. The streets are laid off at regular distances from each other, but for convenience, other thoroughfares, not laid down in the original plan, have been cut through some of the blocks. These are called "Half streets," as they occur between and are parallel with the numbered streets. Thus, Four-and-a-half Street is between Fourth and Fifth streets, and runs parallel with them. The avenues run diagonally across the city, cutting the streets at right-angles. New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Delaware avenues intersect at the Capitol, and Pennsylvania, New York, Vermont, and Connecticut avenues intersect at the President's house. Pennsylvania Avenue is the main thoroughfare. It is 160 feet wide, and runs the entire length of the city, from the Eastern Branch to Rock Creek,—which latter stream separates Washington from Georgetown. It was originally a swampy thicket. The bushes were cut away to the desired width soon after the city was laid off, but few persons cared to settle in the swamp. Through the exertions of President Jefferson, it was planted with four rows of fine Lombardy poplars,—one on each side and two in the middle,—with the hope of making it equal to the famous *Unter den Linden*, in Berlin. The poplars did not grow as well as was hoped, however, and, when the avenue was graded and paved by order of Congress, in 1832 and 1833, were removed. The street is now well paved and lighted. It is handsomely built up, and contains some buildings which would do credit to any city. The

view from either the Capitol or the President's House along the avenue is very fine.

There are 1170 blocks or squares, bounded by 22 avenues ranging from 130 to 160 feet in width, named, as far as they go, after the different States; and 100 streets, from 70 to 100 feet wide. The circumference of the city is 14 miles. There are 199 miles of streets, and 65 miles of avenues. The paving and grading of the streets has been done almost entirely by the city. The Government claims every privilege accorded to it by the original design, but steadily refuses to carry out the part assigned it by that same plan.

Were it not for the Public Buildings which it contains, Washington would be a most uninteresting city; but these have made it one of the principal attractions of the country. With the single exception of the City Hall and the Smithsonian Institute, these buildings are owned and used by the Federal Government of the United States.

The *Capitol* is the grandest and most majestic edifice in the New World, and one of the finest on the globe. It stands on the western brow of a commanding hill, and overlooks the city and the surrounding country. The site was chosen by Washington, who was greatly impressed with its advantages. The corner-stone of the original building was laid by Washington, on the 18th of September, 1793. This edifice was finished in 1811, and was burned by the British army, in 1814. Its reconstruction was begun immediately after the close of the war, and the building was completed according to the original design in 1825. In 1851, work was begun on the Capitol for the purpose of enlarging and beautifying it. The principal additions consist of a massive dome over the central building, and a wing at the northern and southern extremities of the old structure. The building is not quite finished at present, but will require only a few years to complete it.

The extension consists of two wings, each of which has a front of 142 feet 8 inches, and a depth of 238 feet 10 inches, not including the porticoes and steps. The porticoes front the east, and have each 22 monolithic fluted columns. They "extend the entire width of the front, having central projections of 10 feet 4 inches, forming double porticoes in the centre, the width of the gable. There is also a portico of 10 columns on the west end of each wing, 105 feet 8 inches wide, projecting 10 feet 6 inches, and like porticoes on the north side of the north wing and south side of the south wing, with a width of 121 feet 4 inches. The centre building is 352 feet 4 inches long and 121 feet 6 inches deep, with a portico 160 feet wide, of 24 columns,

with a double façade on the east, and a projection of 83 feet on the west, embracing a recessed portico of 10 coupled columns. The entire length of the Capitol is 751 feet 4 inches, and the greatest depth, including porticoes and steps, is 324 feet. The ground actually covered by the building, exclusive of the court-yards, is 153,112 square feet, or 652 feet over $3\frac{1}{2}$ acres. "The material of which the extension is built, is a white marble slightly variegated with blue, and was procured from a quarry in Lee, Massachusetts. The columns are all of white marble obtained from Maryland. The principal story of the Capitol rests upon a rustic basement, which supports an ordonnance of pilasters rising to the height of the two stories above. Upon these pilasters rests the entablature and beautiful frieze, and the whole is surmounted by a marble balustrade. The main entrances are by the three eastern porticoes, being made easy of access by broad flights of stone steps with massive cheek-blocks, and vaulted carriage-ways beneath to the basement entrances."

The building faces the east, and the rear is in the direction of the principal part of the city. This location was made under the impression that the neighborhood of the Capitol would be first settled in the growth of the new city; but the designs of the projectors not having been realized, the building now faces the wrong way.

Standing in front of the edifice, and at a distance sufficient to take in the whole view, the effect is indescribably grand. The pure white marble glitters and shines in the sunlight, and the huge structure towers above one like one of the famed palaces of old romance. The broad flights of steps of the wings and central buildings have an air of elegance and lightness which is surprising when their massive character is considered. The pediments of the porticoes will contain magnificent groups of sculpture. The central pediment is decorated with a group sculptured in alto-relievo. The Genius of America, crowned with a star, holds in her right hand a shield bearing the letters U. S. A., surrounded with a glory. The shield rests on an altar inscribed with the date, "July 4, 1776," encircled with a laurel wreath. A spear is behind her within reach, and the eagle crouches at her feet. She is gazing at Hope, who stands on her left, and is directing her attention to Justice, on her right, who holds in her right hand a scroll inscribed, "Constitution of the United States," and in her left the scales. The group is said to have been designed by John Quincy Adams, and was executed by Signor Persico. The northern pediment contains Crawford's famous group, representing the progress of civilization in the United States. America stands in the centre of the tympanum, in

the full light of the rising sun. On her right hand are War, Commerce, Youth and Education, and Agriculture; on her left the pioneer backwoodsman, the hunter, the Indian and his squaw with an infant in her arms, sitting by a filled grave. The southern pediment has not yet been filled. It is said that the design adopted for it is by William R. Barbee, and represents the discovery of the country by Columbus. The cheek-blocks of the steps to the central portico are ornamented by two fine groups of statuary. The group on the right of the steps represents the discovery of America, and is by Persico. Columbus, landing in the New World, holds aloft in his right hand a globe, symbolic of his discovery. He is clad in armor, which is said to be a faithful copy of a suit worn by him. An Indian maiden crouches beneath his uplifted arm, her face expressive of the surprise and terror of her race at the appearance of the whites. The group on the left is called "*Civilization*," and is by Greenough. A terror-stricken mother, clasping her babe to her breast, crouches at the feet of a stalwart Indian warrior, whose arms, raised in the act of striking her with his tomahawk, are seized and pinioned by the husband and father, who returns at the fortunate moment, accompanied by his faithful dog, which stands by ready to spring to the aid of his master. The entire cost of the Capitol and its improvements, when completed, will be over \$12,000,000.

The interior of the Capitol is in keeping with the exterior. The Rotunda, which is the central portion of the old building, is surmounted by a grand dome, the ceiling of which is beautifully frescoed with allegorical designs. The walls are adorned with paintings and statuary, illustrating the history of the country. The effect of the whole is very beautiful.

On the east side of the central building, opposite the main entrance, is the Library of Congress, a magnificent hall, filled with a collection of nearly 300,000 volumes. The copyright laws require a copy of each and every copyrighted book published in the United States to be deposited in this library. The library is free to the public for use within the hall, but only Members of Congress and certain other persons are privileged to take the books from the hall.

On the north side of the Rotunda is the portion of the building used by the Supreme Court of the United States, its officers, and its library, numbering between 25,000 and 30,000 volumes. A handsome corridor leads from this portion to the new North Wing, used by the Senate of the United States and its Committees. The base-

ment of this wing is exquisitely frescoed with illustrations belonging to the natural history of North America, the designs being painted from life. The Committee rooms in this wing are handsome apartments, elegantly fitted up. The corridors are beautiful, and are mostly of marble, with floors of encaustic tiles.

Two handsome marble stairways lead from the basement to the second, or main floor. They are situated in the southeastern and southwestern ends of the wing. They are continued, on a much more magnificent scale, from the second floor to the galleries and rooms of the third floor. This portion of the two wings is on a level with the floor of the Rotunda, and contains the principal apartments of the Capitol. The main entrances are by the magnificent North and South Porticoes, which are now ornamented with the superb bronze doors designed for them. The doors of the Senate portico illustrate the events of the life of Washington.

The retiring rooms of the Senate, and the rooms used by the President and Vice-President of the United States are gorgeous apartments. The President's room is adorned with fresco portraits of Washington's first Cabinet. Lying between the President's and Vice-President's rooms is a suite of sumptuous apartments—the most magnificent in the building—known as the Marble Room. The total length of the three rooms is about 85 feet, the width $21\frac{1}{2}$ feet, and the height $19\frac{1}{2}$ feet. The floor is an exquisite piece of mosaic in marble, and the ceiling is in panels of slightly colored Italian marble, and rests upon a series of magnificent white Italian marble pillars with elaborate capitals. The walls are adorned with large and superb mirrors, and are veneered with the finest specimens of Tennessee marble in the country. The windows are richly curtained, the furniture is exquisite, and the apartment is lighted by a large brass chandelier. The suite is used by the Senators as a retiring and private reception room. The principal apartment in this wing is the Senate Chamber, a magnificent hall, 112 feet in length, 82 feet wide, and 30 feet high. The ceiling is constructed entirely of cast iron, deeply panelled, with stained glass skylights, and ornamented with foliage, pendants, and drops, of the richest and most elaborate description. The walls and ceiling are painted with strong, brilliant colors, and all the iron work is bronzed and gilded. A cushioned gallery extends entirely around the hall. That portion immediately over the chair of the Vice-President of the United States is assigned to the reporters of the press, and a section enclosed by handsome iron railings, and immediately

facing the Chair, is for the use of the members of the Diplomatic Corps. The rest of the gallery is divided into sections for ladies and gentlemen. A fine view of the hall can be obtained from any part of it. The space under the gallery is enclosed, and used as cloak-rooms, etc. The gallery will seat one thousand persons.

Immediately opposite the main door of the Chamber is the chair of the Vice-President of the United States, who presides over the Senate. It is placed on a platform of pure white marble, and behind a desk of the same material. Just below this is a similar but larger desk, used by the Secretary of the Senate and his assistants, and at the foot of this table are the chairs of the short-hand reporters of the debates.

The floor rises in the form of an amphitheatre from the space in front of the Secretary's desk to the rear. Along these rows of steps, the registers are built in the floor, and keep the temperature of the Chamber at a fixed heat. The desks of the Senators are of oak, of a handsome and convenient pattern, and are arranged in three semi-circular rows facing the Chair. A comfortable armchair is provided for each desk; and sofas and chairs for the convenience of Senators and those entitled to the privileges of the floor, are arranged around the sides of the hall. The choice of seats is determined by drawing lots.

During the day the glass ceiling allows a soft and pleasant light to pass into the chamber, and at night the gas jets, which are arranged above the skylights, shed through the beautiful hall a radiance which can scarcely be distinguished from the light of the sun.

In the South Wing of the old building, and opening upon the Rotunda, is the old Hall of the House of Representatives, one of the most beautiful apartments in the Capitol. In accordance with the popular wish this hall is preserved in its original state, and is now used as a gallery of Statuary. A fine corridor, ornamented with a pair of bronze doors, leads to the new South Wing, now used by the House of Representatives and its officers. These doors are the work of Randolph Rogers, an American artist, and are said to be the finest works of their kind in the world. They illustrate the principal scenes in the life of Columbus.

The basement of the South Wing contains the Committee rooms of the House of Representatives. These are equal in magnificence to those of the Senate. The corridors are not as handsome as those of the North Wing, but are still very beautiful. The first floor is reached by an elegant stairway of marble at each end of the wing.

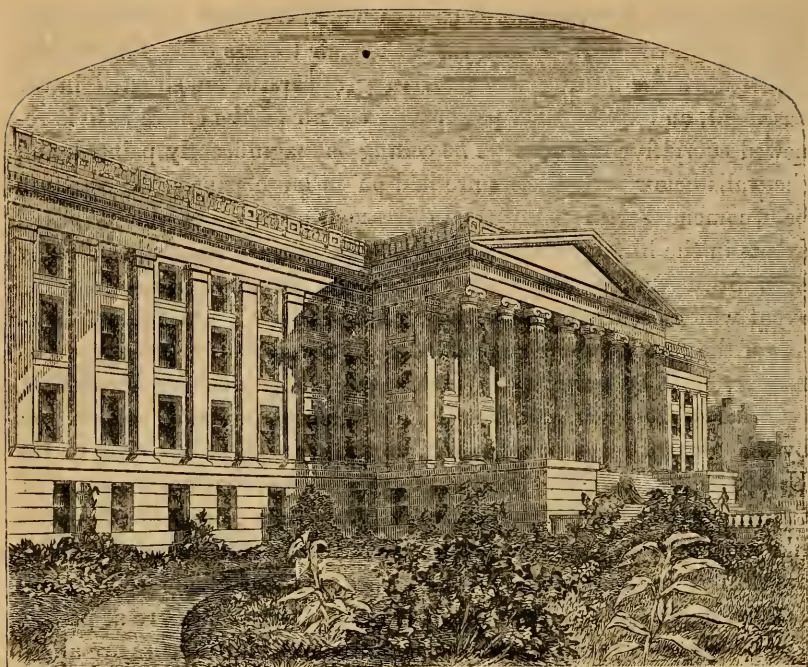
These stairways are continued to the second floor on a more magnificent scale, and are ornamented with fine paintings by Leutze and other artists. The corridors contain several statues of the great men of America. The Speaker's Room, used by the presiding officer of the House of Representatives, is a beautiful apartment, and is ornamented with portraits of nearly every Speaker since the organization of the Government.

The Hall of the House of Representatives occupies the central portion of the wing. It is 139 feet long, 93 feet wide, and 36 feet high. It is of sufficient size to afford comfortable accommodations for the increased number of members a century hence. It has an area of 12,927 square feet. The galleries extend entirely around it, and will seat 1200 persons. The seats are cushioned, and present a handsome appearance. That portion opposite the Speaker's chair is ornamented with a magnificent bronze clock. Immediately over the Speaker's chair is the Reporters' Gallery, which is for the exclusive use of the Press. It is furnished with handsome private desks, one of which is assigned to the accredited reporter for some particular journal for the entire session. Some 25 or 30 of the leading newspapers of the land are represented here. The rest of the gallery is divided into sections for the members of the Diplomatic Corps, for ladies, and for gentlemen unaccompanied by ladies. These are separated from each other by iron railings. The ceiling is of cast iron, and is similar to that of the Senate Chamber, but handsomer. In the centre is a large skylight containing a number of panels ornamented with the coats of arms of the various States and Territories of the Union. The hall is lighted by means of this skylight. "An arrangement of movable metallic plates, on the principle of Venetian blinds, is placed under the sunny side of the respective roofs of the House and Senate, so that the same amount of light may be admitted all the time." The arrangement of the gas lights is similar to that of the Senate Chamber. Fifteen hundred burners are placed over the glass of the ceiling, at a distance of an inch apart. Over each one of these passes an incombustible wire. The gas is turned on, an electric current flashes along the wire, and in an instant the hall is filled with a soft, pleasing light, which resembles that of the sun. Opposite the principal door, are three desks of pure white marble, ranged one above the other. The highest is occupied by the Speaker of the House, the next by the Clerk of the House and his assistants, and the lowest by the official reporters of the debates. The registers for warming the hall are built

in the sides of the different steps into which the floor is divided, and openings in the wall permit the heated air to pass off. The engines which work the heating and ventilating apparatus are situated in the basement, and are of such power that the air of the entire hall is renewed every five minutes. The ceiling is magnificently painted, and the walls below the galleries are laid off in large panels, which are to be ornamented with paintings in fresco illustrative of the principal events in the history of the country. One of these panels has already been filled with a magnificent fresco, by Brumidi, illustrating an event which occurred at the Siege of Yorktown. On the right and left of the Speaker's chair are full-length portraits of Washington and Lafayette. The portrait of Washington was painted by Vanderlyn, by order of Congress, and that of Lafayette was presented to Congress by the great Frenchman himself, on the occasion of his visit to the United States, in 1825. Both pictures were among the ornaments of the old Hall of Representatives. The floor rises from south to north, like an amphitheatre. The seats and desks of the members (which are similar to those of the Senators) are arranged along this amphitheatre, in successive circles, facing the Speaker. There are at present 236 of these desks and seats in use. The desks and chairs are all of a handsome pattern, and make a very showy appearance. Seats are chosen by lot at the beginning of every session. The desk of the Sergeant-at-Arms is on the Speaker's right, that of the Door-keeper on his left. The space under the galleries is enclosed and occupied by two cloak rooms for Members, a Barber Shop for Members, a Folding Room, and Document Room.

The Capitol grounds cover an area of several acres, and are handsomely ornamented with statuary, fountains, shrubbery, etc. The dome of the Capitol is surmounted by Crawford's statue of Freedom, a magnificent work of bronze. It is placed at an altitude of 300 feet from the ground. From the gallery below the base of the statue magnificent views of the city, the Potomac, and the surrounding country may be had.

The *Executive Mansion*, or, as it is more commonly called, the *White House*, is the official residence of the President of the United States. It is situated on Pennsylvania avenue, near the western end of the city, and is surrounded by the Treasury, State, War, and Navy Departments. The grounds in front are handsomely ornamented, and in the rear a fine park stretches away to the river. The location is attractive, and commands a magnificent view of the Potomac, but it



UNITED STATES TREASURY.

is not healthy. Ague and fever prevail in the spring and fall, and render it anything but a desirable place of residence. The building is constructed of freestone, painted white—hence its most common name, the “White House.” It was designed by James Hoban, and was modelled after the palace of the Duke of Leinster. The cornerstone was laid on the 13th of October, 1792, and the house was ready for occupancy in the summer of 1800. It was partially destroyed by the British in 1814. It has a front of 170 feet, and a depth of 86 feet. It contains two lofty stories of rooms, and the roof is surrounded with a handsome balustrade. The exterior walls are ornamented with fine Ionic pilasters. On the north front is a handsome portico, with four Ionic columns in front, and a projecting screen with three columns. The space between these two rows of pillars is a covered carriage way. The main entrance to the house is from this portico through a massive doorway, which opens into the main hall. The garden front has a rusticated basement, which gives a third story to the house on this side, and by a semicircular projecting colonnade of six columns, with two flights of steps leading from the ground to the level of the prin-

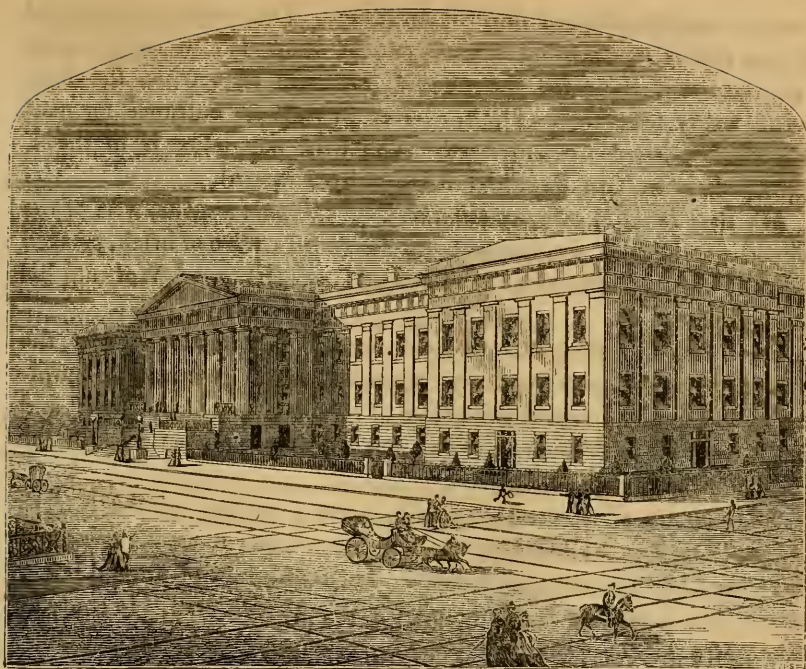
cipal story. The interior is handsome, but simple, and contains the state apartments, or rooms used for public receptions, the Executive offices, and the private residence of the President and his family.

The *United States Treasury* is located on Pennsylvania avenue, at the corner of Fifteenth street west, fronting G street. The old building was commenced in 1836, and was constructed of inferior brown sandstone, painted in imitation of granite. In 1855, the extension was begun. It is now nearly completed. This extension has more than doubled the size of the original edifice, and has made the whole building one of the handsomest and most imposing in the country. The old building extended along Fifteenth street, and was ornamented with an unbroken Ionic colonnade, 342 feet long, which, though showy, was inconvenient, as it excluded the light from the rooms. The plan of the extension flanks the old building at each end with massive granite masonry, and makes beautiful terminations of the north and south fronts, which serve to relieve the dreary monotony of the long colonnade, besides providing a large new building at each end. "There are two inner quadrangles formed by the old rear building, extending back from the eastern entrance. These courts are each 130 feet square. The walls of the extension are composed of pilasters, resting on a base which rises some 12 feet above the ground on the southern or lower side. Between the pilasters or antæ are belt courses, beautifully moulded, and the facings of the doors and windows are fine bold mouldings in keeping. In the centre of the southern, western, and northern fronts are magnificent porticoes. The west front has also the projecting pediments at the ends, corresponding with those on the east side, and each supported by square antæ at the angles, with two columns between. The whole building is of the Grecian or Ionic order, and is surmounted by a massive balustrade. The new structure is of the best and most beautiful granite in the world, brought from Dix Island, on the coast of Maine. The antæ and columns are monoliths. The large, solid antæ weigh nearly 100,000 pounds, and the columns some 75,000. The facility with which the immense masses are hewn out of the quarries, swung on board vessels, brought to the capital, and raised to the positions which the architect in his studio designed them to occupy, conveys a high idea of American art and enterprise. The Treasury Building, as extended, is 465 feet long, exclusive of the porticoes, by 266 feet wide." The courts are ornamented with handsome fountains. A very beautiful one adorns the space in front of the western portico, at the en-

trance to the President's Park, and another is now being constructed before the north front. The entrances are through massive gateways. The yard on the north and west sides is lower than the street, and broad flights of steps lead to it. A handsome granite balustrade extends along the north wall. The interior arrangements are unusually fine. The architecture ranks next to that of the Capitol in its magnificence, and is peculiarly American in its details. Unlike most of the public buildings, the offices are large, airy, and handsome, presenting the appearance of splendid saloons, and affording a greater degree of comfort to the occupants than the narrow, cell-like apartments of the old Treasury.

The *Department of State* will soon be located in the Treasury Extension, where elegant and convenient apartments are being prepared for it.

The *Patent Office*, or, as it is sometimes called, the *Department of the Interior*, is used by the Secretary of the Interior and his clerks, but was designed originally for the use of the Bureau of Patents. This bureau is entrusted with the duty of granting letters patent securing a profitable reward to any person inventing articles beneficial to civilization. The building, known as the Patent Office, occupies two whole squares, and fronts south on F street, north on G street, east on 7th street west, and west on 9th street west. The length of the building, from 7th to 9th streets, is 410 feet, and the width, from F to G streets, is 275 feet. It is built up along the four sides, with a large interior quadrangle about 265 by 135 feet in size. It is constructed in the plainest Doric style, of massive crystallized marble, and though devoid of exterior ornament, is one of the most magnificent buildings in the city. It is grand in its simplicity, and its architectural details are pure and tasteful. It is ornamented with massive porticoes, one on each front, which add much to its appearance. The eastern portico is much admired. That on the south front is an exact copy of the portico of the Pantheon of Rome. The interior is divided into three stories. The ground and second floors are arranged in offices for the accommodation of the business of the Interior Department, but the third floor is occupied by an immense saloon extending entirely around the quadrangle. This is used as the Model Room, but partakes, as far as the south hall is concerned, of the character of a museum. The models and other articles are arranged in glass cases on each side of the room, ample space being left in the centre for promenading. There are two rows of cases, one above the other—the upper row be-



UNITED STATES PATENT OFFICE.

ing placed in a handsome light gallery of iron, reached by tasteful iron stairways, and extending entirely around the east, north, and west halls. The halls themselves are paved with handsome tiles. The ceiling is supported by a double row of imposing pillars, which also act as supports to the galleries, and both the walls and ceilings are finished in marble panels and frescoes. A more beautiful saloon is not to be found in America. Connected with the Patent Office is a valuable library, and the most interesting museum of American antiquities, etc., in the country.

The *General Post Office* is used by the Postmaster-General of the United States, and his assistants. It covers an entire block, almost directly opposite the Patent Office, and is bounded by E and F streets north, and 7th and 8th streets west. It is 300 feet long, from north to south, and 204 feet wide, from east to west. It is built of white marble, in the Corinthian style of architecture, and is the best representation of the Italian palatial ever erected upon this continent. It is rectangular in form, with a spacious interior court-yard, 95 by 194 feet in size. On the 7th street side there is a vestibule, which consti-

tutes the grand entrance into the building. The ceiling is composed of exquisitely ornamented marble panels, supported by four marble columns; and the walls, niches, and floor, are of marble, the floor being richly tessellated. On 8th street there is an entrance for mail wagons, handsomely ornamented. The City post-office is in the F street side of the building, and is tastefully arranged.

The *War Department* is situated on Pennsylvania avenue, west of the President's House. It is a plain, old-fashioned edifice of brick, painted in lead color. It contains the offices of the Secretary of War and his assistants.

The *Navy Department* is situated immediately in the rear of the War Department, and fronts on 17th street west. It is a plain building of brick, and contains the offices of the Secretary of the Navy and his clerks. It is proposed to erect new and handsome edifices for the War and Navy departments.

The *Bureau of Agriculture* stands upon a portion of the Smithsonian Reservation. The grounds about it comprise about 20 acres, and have been laid out with much taste. The building is of pressed brick, four stories high, and is surmounted with a French roof. It contains the offices of the Commissioner of Agriculture and his assistants, whose business it is to overlook and promote the agricultural interests of the country, and to receive and publish statistics concerning them. This is one of the most interesting departments of the Government.

The *Navy Yard*, situated on the Eastern Branch, at the foot of 8th street east, covers an area of 20 acres, enclosed by a high brick wall. It is one of the principal establishments of the Government, and contains several ship houses, and machine shops for the manufacture of everything needed for the building, equipping, and fitting-out of ships of war.

The *Arsenal* stands at the extreme southern end of the city, on Greenleaf's Point, at the mouth of the Eastern Branch of the Potomac. It is quite an extensive establishment, and is one of the principal Arsenals of Construction in the country. It is interesting as having been the scene of the trial and execution of the persons concerned in the assassination of President Lincoln.

The *National Observatory* is situated upon an elevated site, southwest of the President's mansion, near the Georgetown line, and commands a fine view of both cities and of the Potomac River as far down as Fort Washington and Mount Vernon. It is under the control of the Navy Department, and is in charge of a corps of naval officers selected

for their scientific abilities. It ranks high amongst the Observatories of the world, that of Russia only being superior to it. It is in charge of all the nautical books, maps, charts, and instruments belonging to the Navy.

The *Smithsonian Institution* stands on a part of the portion of the public grounds extending westward from the Capitol to the Potomac River, and called "*The Mall*." The grounds extend from 7th street west to 12th street west, and from the Canal (which forms the northern boundary) to B street south. They are very extensive, comprising an area of 52 acres, and were laid out by the distinguished horticulturist and landscape gardener, Andrew Jackson Downing, who died while engaged in this work. A handsome monument to his memory stands in the grounds. It consists of a massive vase resting on a pedestal, the whole being executed of the finest Italian marble. The building stands near the centre of the park. The site is about 20 feet above the average level of Pennsylvania avenue, and the centre of the building is exactly opposite 10th street west.

The structure is in the style of architecture belonging to the last half of the twelfth century, the latest variety of rounded style, as it is found immediately anterior to its merging into the early Gothic, and is known as the Norman, the Lombard, or Romanesque. The semi-circular arch, stilted, is employed throughout—in doors, windows, and other openings. The main building is 205 feet long by 57 feet wide, and, to the top of the corbel course, 58 feet high. The east wing is 82 by 52 feet, and, to the top of its battlement, 42½ feet high. The west wing, including its projecting apsis, is 84 by 40 feet, and 38 feet high. Each of the wings is connected with the main building by a range, which, including its cloisters, is 60 feet long by 49 feet wide. This makes the length of the entire building, from east to west, 447 feet. Its greatest breadth is 160 feet. The north front of the main building is ornamented with two central towers, the loftiest of which is 150 feet high. It has also a handsome covered carriage-way, upon which opens the main entrance to the building. The south central tower is 37 feet square, 91 feet high, and massively constructed. A double campanile tower, 17 feet square, and 117 feet high, rises from the northeast corner of the main building; and the southwest corner has a lofty octagonal tower, in which is a spiral stairway, leading to the summit. There are four other smaller towers of lesser heights, making nine in all, the effect of which is very beautiful, and which once caused a wit to remark that it seemed to him as if a "collection

of church steeples had gotten lost, and were consulting together as to the best means of getting home to their respective churches." The entire edifice is constructed of a fine quality of lilac-gray freestone, found in the new red-sandstone formation, where it crosses the Potomac near the mouth of Seneca Creek. The Institution was founded by James Smithson, an eminent Englishman. He died in 1828, and left the sum of \$515,169 to the United States for the purpose of founding the Institution which bears his name. The object of Smithson in founding this institution was, in his own words, "to found at Washington, under the name of the Smithsonian Institution, an establishment for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men."

The *National Washington Monument* stands immediately on the shore of the Potomac, directly west of the Capitol, and south of the White House. It is unfinished. Its total height is to be 600 feet, of which 184 feet have been completed. No work has been done on it for several years. It is to be finished by the voluntary contributions of the citizens of the Republic. It is to be built of white marble.

The *City Hall* is the property of the City of Washington. It is a common place structure of white marble. Besides the public buildings, there are a number of fine edifices used for business purposes and for residences. The city is improving rapidly in this respect.

The trade of Washington is almost entirely local. The City is connected with all parts of the country by railways, and the Potomac is navigable for steamers. Its manufacturing interests are in their infancy. The principal amount of the work done is on Government account.

The principal points of the city are connected by street railways. Pure water is brought into the city from the Potomac above Georgetown. The Aqueduct is one of the finest works in the world. It was constructed by the U. S. Engineer Corps. The city is lighted with gas. It contains about 60 churches, some of which are very handsome. The Markets are bountifully supplied. The Hotels are numerous, but do not compare favorably with those of the other large cities of the country. The Public Schools are, as yet, in their infancy. There are five large "public schools," as they are called, which correspond to the "high schools" of most other cities, and a number of primary schools. The system is still incomplete, and capable of great expansion and reform. Of late years it has received more attention from the city authorities and the people, and there is now a fair prospect that the system will soon be placed upon a basis which will enable it to meet the wants of all classes of the community.

VIRGINIA.

Area,	38,352 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,*	1,596,318
Population in 1870,	1,225,163

THE State of Virginia, the oldest of the original members of the Union, is situated between $36^{\circ} 30'$ and about $39^{\circ} 20'$ N. latitude, and between $75^{\circ} 10'$ and $83^{\circ} 30'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Maryland, West Virginia, and Kentucky, on the east by Maryland and the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by North Carolina and Tennessee, and on the west by Kentucky and West Virginia.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The following description of the natural features of this State is taken from a pamphlet recently issued by General John D. Imboden, the "Domestic State Agent of Immigration for Virginia."

"No State in the Union presents a greater variety of surface and climate than Virginia—from the mountains of the interior and the rugged hills east and west of them, to the rich alluvions of the rivers, and the sandy flats on the sea-coast. The greatest extent of mountains, and the greatest variety of timbers are found in this State. White Top Mountain, in Grayson county, attains an elevation of six thousand feet.

"The State is by nature divided into five districts or regions, viz.: the Lower or Tide-water, the Piedmont, the Valley, the Alleghanies, and the Trans-Alleghanies. We will glance at them in their natural order.

* Since the census of 1860, the western counties of the old State have been erected into the new State of West Virginia.

“LOWER OR TIDE-WATER DISTRICT. — Thirty-seven counties, mostly bordering on the Atlantic Ocean and Chesapeake Bay, compose this district. It is generally level, not more than 60 feet above tide, even in the highest places. Great navigable streams traverse it in a southeastern direction, such as the Potomac, Rappahannock, York, and James, with a multitude of smaller streams. The great slope which forms this district is ‘divided by natural boundaries into no less than twelve principal peninsulas,’ says General Wise, of Virginia, in a recent address, replete with valuable information, ‘the eastern shore of the Chesapeake, that between the Potomac and Rappahannock; between the Rappahannock and Piankatank; between the Piankatank and York; the York and James; the Mattaponi and Pamunkey; the Chickahominy and the James; the Nansemond and Dismal Swamp and the Ocean; the Nansemond and James and the Blackwater; the Blackwater and the Nottoway; the Nottoway and Meherrin; the Meherrin and the Roanoke.’

“This favored region contains every variety of soil. The delta of these rivers ‘in the borders of Virginia is richer and rarer in every production than the garden of the Nile.’ There is nowhere near it any ‘*arida nutritrix leonum*,’ says General Wise, ‘and its only quags of swamp, even in the Big Dragon of the Piankatank, and on the Chickahominy, and around the fire-fly camp of Drummond Lake, are capable of being converted into a New Holland, by dyke and ditch of easy spit and drain, or horticulture of every fruit and vegetable, where drought cannot parch, and of a temperature milder than that much farther south. Vegetation is confined to no one class of plants and trees, and flower, and fruit, and cereal, and staple crops of every variety flourish with a beauty and a fullness and a flavor to cheer industry and art with luscious plenty at home and a paying profit at the markets of every Eastern city. There is a navigable stream at almost every door. There are eligible sites on every creek and river in this region, not only for all the more common fruits, such as apples, peaches, pears, cherries, berries, plums, and melons, but for the rarer and more delicate fruits—such as grapes, figs, pomegranates, apricots, nectarines, Persian cantelopes, strawberries, and cranberries. According to Prince, there are no sites on the continent so Italy-like for fruits, as some of these peninsulas of lowland Virginia.

“The crops of grain and vegetables are still more various, and the lands the easiest tilled in the world, with mines of marl and shell, and fossils and muck for manure in every part. It is a great mistake

to suppose that this section is not equally good for stock-raising of its kind, and for clothing as well as for food. It has the finest ranges in its savannas and salt marshes, for small cattle of the Devon breed, and the best for hogs and sheep—and the hardest blooded horses. The pony of the Chincoteague Island will sell for a higher price than any horse in America proportioned to his girth; and the best racers of the two last centuries were foaled from the blood the south side of the James. Flax and hemp may be grown to any extent, and cotton has been grown profitably. Its forests furnish the choicest ship-timber from its salt sea atmosphere in thirty miles of the coast. Its Hampton Roads is the largest harbor of the continent, to which the eastern rivers converge from every point of the compass for commerce. And, everywhere, on land and water, nature has provided a meat-house of fisheries and game, venison, wild turkeys, quails and woodcock, rabbits, squirrels, robins, sora, reed-birds, shell-fish, scale-fish, terrapins, turtles, swans, wild geese, brant, wild ducks, and plover innumerable, and indestructible.

“The salubrity ‘of its climate,’ says General Wise, ‘will compare with that of any region since drainage and liming of the lands began to remove the causes of malarial fevers chiefly at the point where the tides of salt water meet the currents of the fresh water at the rivers.’

“The entire region is favorable to the growth of the finer kinds of tobacco, offering great inducements for the settlement of growers from the various portions of European tobacco regions. There is no reason why the finest Cuban tobaccoes should not grow here, and with the now sprading cultivation of the *Latakia* tobacco plant, brought by Bayard Taylor from Palestine, and successfully introduced already by him in Pennsylvania, a great future is open for this staple in Virginia. Mr. Taylor thinks this variety incomparably better than the *finest* Yara or Cuba ever grown, and states that it does not deteriorate by being transplanted, but retains perfectly all its delicious characteristics.

“Market gardeners near Norfolk cultivate early vegetables for the markets of Maryland, Pennsylvania and New York, having their produce ripening from three to four weeks earlier than in those more northern latitudes. They have been known, on from five to ten acres in cultivation, to make per annum from \$2500 to \$5000 clear profit. By the Anamesic line of railroad, which now in thirteen hours’ travel connects the city of Norfolk with the metropolis of New York, market gardeners and farmers on the lower Chesapeake Bay, especially those who live in Accomac and Northampton counties, may directly, and

those of Princess Anne, Norfolk, York, Gloucester, Mathews, Middlesex, Lancaster, and Northumberland may, by means of their own little schooners, in one night's travel across the bay, offer their produce for sale within twenty-four hours, in the best market on the American continent. The fisheries on these coasts are world-renowned. On the whole line of the counties above mentioned, fish manure can be abundantly obtained for the labor of carrying it away. Wheat and other cereals flourish. During the war in this section, the inhabitants felt no apprehension on the score of living; they could find fish and oysters, and wild ducks, everywhere, and in plenty. In Nansemond county, in the celebrated Dismal Swamp, peat has been discovered. It is now being cut, moulded and shipped to the northern cities, and found to be extremely profitable.

"By allowing 100 inhabitants to the square mile, and giving 60 acres as a homestead to each family, the lowlands of Virginia can maintain a population of 1,600,000 souls.

"**PIEDMONT DISTRICT.**—At the foot of the mountains, stretching away to where the navigation of the rivers which traverse the lowlands ceases, a region embracing 32 counties, lies, more diversified in surface than the lowlands—and, of course, more elevated, with a genial, healthful climate. Here are found the greatest inducements for the erection of manufacturing establishments,—natural water-power being everywhere abundantly at command. This land is the Piedmont of Virginia—like the vinous land of Italy, though not so naked. As General Wise says: 'For hill and dale, and grove and meadow, for lawns and orchards, and mountain spires and undulating surface of waving wheat-fields and green swards, and buoyant springs and sparkling fountains, and bracing air—it surpasses all classic lands of Arcadia.' It is divided by the James into North and South Piedmont, from the Point of Rocks to Lynchburg, and from Lynchburg to the North Carolina line. The difference in these two divisions of the Piedmont is attributable more to the difference in the past habits of cultivating the two than to any great variation of soil or climate. Though one is farther north, yet the climate of each is much the same as that of the other, both being affected by a mountain atmosphere. The northern has the stiffest clay, and cultivates wheat and corn and artificial grasses, and raises live stock; the southern cultivates mostly tobacco and corn, though wheat also largely, and grazes but little. Both are beautiful and fertile and fit for farming—capable of the highest culture; are cool and bracing in temperature and blessed with health.

"This district has an area of 10,000 square miles, and is capable of maintaining a population of 1,000,000 souls. It is not generally a lime land, but portions of it are very rich, viz.: Loudoun, Fauquier, Albemarle, and Bedford counties. The tobacco which is raised in the southern section of Piedmont, south of 38°, is known as *shipping* tobacco. The *fine* tobacco counties in this section are Albemarle, Henry, Pittsylvania, Halifax, Campbell, etc.

"Before we reach the third principal region of Virginia we must cross the Blue Ridge, where we find still some of the most beautiful forests of America, and an atmosphere of surpassing salubrity. The productions of this magnificent mountain-belt are similar to those regions on its sides. Waving wheat-fields and pastures and charming valleys, with grazing cattle and hardy husbandry, may everywhere be met. Vineyards are everywhere springing up, and its honey finds now, and its wines will soon find, a market in the world.

"To the sturdy emigrant this ridge offers still thousands of acres of virgin lands, and nowhere in America will he have nature's assurance of a long life so plainly indicated as here. This ridge alone contains at least 2000 square miles, or 1,280,000 acres—enough to divide into 6400 farms of 200 acres each, and to support a population of 50,000 more than it has now.

"VALLEY DISTRICT.—Crossing the Blue Ridge Mountains we come to the celebrated valley of Virginia (Shenandoah and South Branch), not only renowned for the fertility of its soil—8000 square miles in area, and capable of supporting 800,000 people—but for the splendid characteristics of its inhabitants—originally English, German, Scotch and Irish, now intermixed in one brave race. A continuation of the fruitful Cumberland Valley of Pennsylvania, it stretches between the Blue Ridge and Alleghany Mountains the entire length of Virginia, obliquely from northeast to southwest, nearly 300 miles, and is from 25 to 30 miles wide. Possessing the finest grazing country in the world, and having throughout a limestone foundation, its lands yield from 20 to 40 bushels of wheat, and from 40 to 50 bushels of Indian corn is by no means an extraordinary crop.

"To show the remarkable permanency of its fertility, we cite the following from a traveller in the last century. Burnaby, in his travels, describes the condition of the Germans on the Shenandoah as follows: 'I could not but reflect with pleasure on the situation of these people, and think if there is such a thing as happiness in this life they enjoy it. Far from the bustle of the world, they live in the

most delightful climate and richest soil imaginable; they are everywhere surrounded with beautiful prospects and sylvan scenes, lofty mountains, transparent streams, falls of water, rich valleys, and majestic woods; the whole interspersed with an infinite variety of flowering shrubs, constitute the landscape surrounding them; they are subject to few diseases; are generally robust and live in perfect liberty; they are ignorant of want and acquainted with but few vices; their inexperience of the elegancies of life precludes any regret that they possess not the means of enjoying them; but they possess what many princes would give their dominions for—health, content, and tranquillity of mind.’ Seventy years later, Bernhard, Duke of Saxe-Weimer, says of this valley: ‘The country was pretty well cultivated, and by the exterior of many country houses, we were induced to believe their inhabitants enjoyed plenty.’ Daniel Webster, twenty years after this, in a public oration in the Shenandoah Valley, said: ‘he had seen no finer farming land in his European travels than in that valley.’ Still twenty years later, and the Northern troops when they entered it victoriously, after its great defender, Stonewall Jackson, had fallen, exclaimed: ‘Here is a second Canaan, let us rest here and pitch our tents.’ What gives particular interest to this valley and to the Blue Ridge to the European and Northern emigrant is the fact that there have never been many negroes within them—at this day the land is cultivated almost entirely by white laborers.

“THE ALLEGHANIES.—Beyond this valley westward rise the Alleghanies. Their range runs northeast and southwest 250 miles, by 50 miles of average width—making of mountains, valleys, and dales, 12,500 square miles. Besides their aspect of rocks, ridges, caves, valleys, slopes, healing springs, streams, and fountains, they present to the eye a most luxuriant indigenous verdure of blue-grass spread over forests and fields, which offer grazing to live stock on nature’s pastures without cost of clearing or cultivation. North of the High Knob and Haystack there are no negroes. The whole region of these mountains abounds in minerals of every description, which wait for capital to develop them. Wheat, rye, oats, and other grains, and the fruits of northern latitudes grow luxuriantly everywhere in the valleys, dales, plateaus, and on the slopes of these rugged mountains, and offer a most inviting home to a Swiss, a Scot, a Swede, a Norwegian, etc. There is room enough in these mountains for 1,200,000 immigrants of every kind of occupation.”

The lower part of the State is divided by the Chesapeake Bay, two



NATURAL BRIDGE.

counties lying between the Bay and the Ocean. They are known as the Eastern Shore of Virginia. Below the mouth of the Potomac River, the Chesapeake lies wholly in the State, and receives the waters of the Rappahannock, Piankatank, York, and James rivers. The famous oyster fishing grounds of the Chesapeake are within this part of the State, and from them millions of bushels of oysters are gathered every year, and shipped to Baltimore and the northern cities.

The Potomac River washes the entire northeast border of the State. It rises in two branches, in the eastern part of West Virginia. These branches unite in Hampshire county, West Va., from which point the main river pursues a generally southeast course to its mouth. It is 350 miles long, exclusive of its branches. It flows into the Chesapeake Bay through a broad estuary, 50 miles long, and from 6 to 10 miles wide. It is navigable to Washington for first-class vessels.

At Georgetown, in the District of Columbia, it is broken by a magnificent fall, over 50 feet high. The country along its upper waters is beautiful and grand beyond description. At Harper's Ferry, the river first touches the soil of Old Virginia. Here it breaks through the Blue Ridge, a mountain-pass of the greatest magnificence. It forms the boundary between Maryland and West Virginia and Virginia. Leesburg and Alexandria are the principal towns of Virginia on the river. George Washington was born on the shores of the lower Potomac. *The Rappahannock River* is formed by the junction of the North and Rapidan rivers in the eastern part of Culpeper county. Flowing southeast, it empties into the Chesapeake Bay, about twenty-five or thirty miles below the mouth of the Potomac. It meets the tide at Fredericksburg, its principal town. Above this place it possesses almost unlimited water-power of the best description. It is 125 miles long, and flows through a beautiful and fertile country. Together with the Rapidan, it has been rendered famous by the events which occurred on its shores during the late civil war. *The York River* is formed by the junction of the Mattaponi and Pamunkey rivers, at the southeast end of King William county. It is about 40 miles long, with an average width of 3 miles, and flows southeasterly into Chesapeake Bay, directly opposite Cape Charles. West Point, at its head, now a mere hamlet, was once the most important place in the colony of Virginia. Yorktown, so famous in the Revolution and the Rebellion, is situated on the right bank of the river, a mile or two from its mouth. *The James River*, the principal stream in the State, is formed by the confluence of the Jackson and Cowpasture rivers, on the borders of Alleghany and Bottetourt counties. It flows southeast to the Blue Ridge Mountains, through which it forces its way, forming one of the grandest river passes in America. From this point its general course is northeast to the southern border of Albemarle county, after which it flows east-southeast to the bay, emptying into that body of water between Capes Charles and Henry. It is broken in several places by falls, and at Richmond flows over a succession of rapids six miles long. It is about 450 miles long, exclusive of its branches. It is navigable for ships and steamers to Richmond, 150 miles from the sea, at the head of tide water. The James River and Kanawha Canal furnish uninterrupted navigation from Richmond to beyond the Blue Ridge. The James flows through a beautiful and fertile country along its whole length. Above Richmond its water-power is magnificent. The lower part of the river is

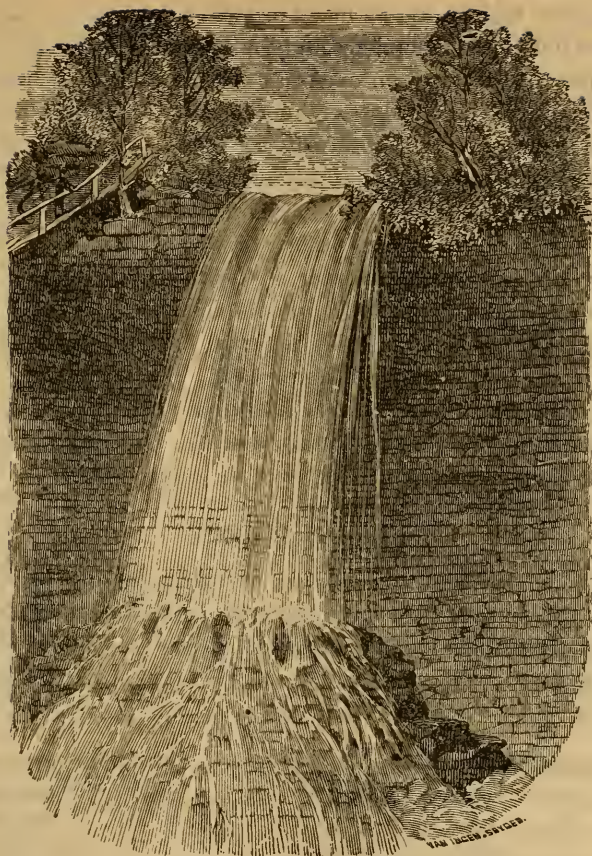
known as Hampton Roads, and is defended by the powerful works of Fortress Monroe and Fort Wool. Lynchburg and Richmond are the principal towns on the river. Norfolk is situated on the Elizabeth River, 14 miles from its entrance into the James, opposite Fortress Monroe. The Roanoke River of North Carolina, and the Holston of Tennessee, rise in the southeast part of Virginia.

The State is crossed by the Alleghany and Blue Ridge ranges, the former separating it from West Virginia. The Cumberland Mountains form the southwestern boundary, and separate Virginia from Kentucky.

The region immediately south of Norfolk is occupied by an immense marsh known as the Dismal Swamp, through which a canal has been cut from Norfolk to Elizabeth City, North Carolina, connecting the waters of the Chesapeake with those of Albemarle Sound.

"The celebrated swamp called the '*Dismal*,' lies partly in Virginia and partly in North Carolina; it extends from north to south nearly 30 miles, and averages, from east to west, about 10 miles. Five navigable rivers and some creeks rise in it. The sources of all these streams are hidden in the swamp, and no traces of them appear above ground. From this it appears that there must be plentiful subterraneous fountains to supply these streams, or the soil must be filled perpetually with the water drained from the higher lands which surround it. The latter hypothesis is most probable, because the soil of the swamp is a complete quagmire, trembling under the feet, and filling immediately the impression of every step with water. It may be penetrated to a great distance by thrusting down a stick, and whenever a fire is kindled upon it, after the layer of leaves and rubbish is burned through, the coals sink down, and are extinguished. The eastern skirts of the Dismal Swamp are overgrown with reeds, ten or twelve feet high, interlaced everywhere with thorny bamboo briers, which render it almost impossible to pass. Among these are found, here and there, a cypress, and white cedar, which last is commonly mistaken for the juniper. Towards the south there is a very large tract covered with reeds, without any trees, which being constantly green, and waving in the wind, is called the *green sea*. An evergreen shrub, called the gall-bush, grows plentifully throughout, but especially on the borders; it bears a berry which dyes a black color, like the gall of an oak, and hence its name. Near the middle of the swamp, the trees grow much closer, both the cypress and cedar; and being always green, and loaded with large tops, are much exposed to the wind, and

easily blown down in this boggy place, where the soil is too soft to afford sufficient hold to the roots. From these causes the passage is nearly always obstructed by trees, which lie piled in heaps, and riding upon each other; and the snags left in them pointing in every direction, render it very difficult to clamber over them. On the western border of the Dismal Swamp is a pine swamp, above a mile in breadth, the greater part of which is covered to the depth of the knee with water: the bottom, however, is firm, and though the pines growing upon it are very large and tall, yet they are not easily blown down by the wind; so that this swamp may be passed without any hinderance, save that occasioned by the depth of the water. With all these disadvantages, the Dismal Swamp, though disagreeable to the other senses, is in many places pleasant to the eye, on account of the perpetual verdure, which makes every season like the spring, and every month like May. Immense quantities of shingles and other juniper lumber are obtained from the swamp, and furnish employment for many negroes, who reside in little huts in its recesses. Much of the lumber is brought out of the swamp, either through ditches cut for the purpose, in long narrow lighters, or are carted out by mules, on roads made of poles laid across the road so as to touch each other, forming a bridge or causeway. There are very many miles of such road. The laborers carry the shingles, etc., to these roads from the trees, on their heads and shoulders. The Dismal Swamp Canal runs through it from north to south, and the Portsmouth and Roanoke Railroad passes for five miles across its northern part. It looks like a grand avenue, surrounded on either hand by magnificent forests. The trees here, the cypress, juniper, oak, pine, etc., are of enormous size, and richest foliage; and below is a thick entangled undergrowth of reeds, woodbine, grape-vines, mosses, and creepers, shooting and twisting spirally around, interlaced and complicated, so as almost to shut out the sun. The engineer who had constructed the road through this extraordinary swamp, found it so formidable a labor as almost to despair of success. In running the line, his feet were pierced by the sharp stumps of cut reeds; he was continually liable to sink ankle or knee deep into a soft muddy ooze; the yellow flies and mosquitoes swarmed in myriads; and the swamp was inhabited by venomous serpents and beasts of prey. The Dismal Swamp was once a favorite hunting-ground of the Indians; arrow-heads, some knives and hatchets are yet found there; and it still abounds in deer, bears, wild turkeys, wild-cats, etc. The water of this swamp is gene-



LITTLE STONY FALLS.

rally impregnated with juniper, and is considered medicinal by the people of the surrounding country, who convey it some distance in barrels. This swamp is much more elevated than the surrounding country, and by means of the Dismal Swamp Canal might be drained, and thus a vast body of most fertile soil reclaimed; and the canal might be transformed into a railroad; and the juniper soil, which is vegetable, might, perhaps, be used as peat."

MINERALS.

The State of Virginia is especially rich in mineral resources, which are still comparatively undeveloped. Gold is found in Fluvanna, Orange, Spottsylvania, Goochland, and Buckingham counties, and the

mines in these regions can be made to yield a profitable return. The copper ore found in Fauquier county is said to yield 75 per cent. of pure copper. Coal and iron exist in great quantities. Immense beds of bituminous coal lie in the neighborhood of Richmond and in the mountain regions, while anthracite is found in quantities in and beyond the Valley. Numerous salt springs exist in the southwestern counties of the State, from which large quantities of salt were annually produced before the late war. The salt works were either destroyed or greatly damaged during the war, so that this branch of the industry of the State has not fully recovered its importance. The other minerals are lead, plumbago, gypsum, porcelain-clay, fine granite, marble, slate, soapstone, lime, water-lime, and fire-clay. The State also abounds in mineral springs of nearly every known variety. They are famous among the fashionable summer resorts of the Union, and are visited every year by persons from all parts of the country.

PRODUCTIONS.

The climate, soil, and products of the State having been already described in the quotation from General Imboden's pamphlet, it is only necessary to offer here a statement of the principal agricultural products in 1870. The following table is taken from the report of the United States Census for that year:

Bushels of Indian corn,	17,649,304
" wheat,	7,398,787
" rye,	582,264
" oats,	6,857,555
" buckwheat,	45,075
" potatoes,	2,115,735
Pounds of tobacco,	37,086,364
Tons of hay,	199,883

COMMERCE.

Previous to the war, Virginia was engaged in a large and lucrative trade with the States of the Union, and had a growing foreign commerce. Her tobacco commanded a high price in the markets of Europe, and her export of flour to South America and the West Indies amounted to near 200,000 barrels annually. Her oyster trade was extremely valuable. Her trade with Europe, however, was carried on mainly through the ports north of her. The statistics for 1860, the year before the war, include the present State of West Virginia, but we give them, as there have been no accurate returns since

the close of the struggle. In 1861, the total exports of the State amounted to \$5,858,024, and the imports to \$1,326,249.

MANUFACTURES.

The figures given below represent the condition of Virginia in 1870, and, of course, do not include the present State of West Virginia. In that year there were 5933 establishments in the State devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts. They employed 26,974 hands, and a capital of \$18,455,400, consumed raw material worth \$23,832,384, and returned an annual product of \$38,364,322. The value of the principal products was as follows:

Cotton goods,	\$1,435,800
Woollen goods,	352,829
Leather,	790,443
Pig iron,	619,820
Rolled iron,	1,994,146
Steam engines and machinery,	591,182
Agricultural implements,	403,457
Sawed and planed lumber,	2,130,705
Flour,	12,649,276
Salt,	1,250
Manufactured tobacco,	7,054,770

The manufacturing interests of Virginia were almost fatally injured by the war, and are but slowly recovering from their reverses. The State possesses the most abundant water-power in the world, and is destined to become one day one of the principal seats of American manufactures.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

The great rivers of the State are navigable for a large part of their course, and a fine canal, extending from Richmond to Buchanan, in Bottetourt county, beyond the Blue Ridge, connects the mountains with the sea. Railroads extend through the State in various directions, connecting its various cities and towns with the capital, and with all parts of the Union. Five lines centre in Richmond, four in Petersburg, two in Norfolk, three in Lynchburg, and three in Alexandria. In 1872, the State contained 1416 miles of completed railroad, constructed at a cost of \$49,975,000. The canals of the State have an aggregate length of about 175 miles.

EDUCATION.

A good free school system, including colored schools, has been established in Virginia since 1871, and is working well. In 1860, there were 23 colleges in the State, some of which are now in West Virginia. Others were burned.

The University of Virginia, at Charlottesville, is the principal school in the State. It was attended by 600 students in 1860. Since the close of the war, it has been reopened, and has regained a large share of its former prosperity. At present the number of students is about 500. A student is admitted from each Senatorial district of the State, without charge for matriculation, tuition, or room rent, these expenses being borne by the State. In return for these advantages, the student enjoying them is required to teach in some school in the State for a period of two years after his graduation.

William and Mary College, at Williamsburg, was established in 1693, and liberally endowed by William and Mary of England. It was in successful operation until 1860, and was regarded, next to the University, as the best school in the State. During the war, the buildings and other college property were destroyed by fire. Efforts are now being made to restore the institution to its former condition.

The Washington-Lee University, at Lexington, was established as an academy before the Revolution. In 1798, it was endowed by Washington, and reorganized as a college. It resumed its operations after the close of the war under the Presidency of General R. E. Lee, assisted by an excellent faculty, and is one of the best and most prosperous institutions in the State. It was formerly known as Washington College. After the death of General Lee, in 1870, it was given its present name.

Hampden-Sidney College, in Prince Edward county, *Randolph-Macon College*, in Hanover county, and *Emory and Henry College*, in Washington county, are the other collegiate institutions in the State.

The Virginia Military Institute, at Lexington, is entirely a State institution. It was in a high state of prosperity in 1860, but was burned during the war. It was reorganized upon the return of peace, and is now in a flourishing condition again. It is an admirable school, and furnishes its pupils with a thoroughly practical, scientific, and military training.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The State of Virginia possesses a *Penitentiary*, at Richmond, an *Asylum for the Blind*, an *Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb*, and an *Asylum for the Insane*, at Staunton, and an *Eastern Asylum for the Insane*, at Williamsburg. No returns of these institutions are at hand.

FINANCES.

The finances of the State are not in a prosperous condition. The State debt is large and increasing, and the interest thereon has not been paid as it accrued. This is attributed to the increased expenses incident to the peculiar condition of affairs in the State, the administration of the Government by the military authorities, and the partial failure to collect the revenue. On the 1st of January, 1871, the amount of principal and interest due by the State was \$47,390,840. The State holds about \$10,048,267 of valuable assets, which, in a few years, will be available for the reduction of the public debt, and it is believed that the *ad valorem* system of taxation prescribed by the Constitution will produce an annual revenue more than sufficient to meet the annual expenses; and now that the control of the State is once more in the hands of its own citizens, it is very certain that its obligations will be faithfully met, and that its time-honored reputation for integrity will suffer no stain.

GOVERNMENT.

After the close of the civil war, Virginia was kept under military rule until the early part of 1870. In the summer of 1869, the people of the State, in accordance with the provisions of the Reconstruction Act, elected a State Government, and the Legislature thus chosen, acting provisionally, met at Richmond in October of the same year. Upon the reassembling of Congress, after the Christmas holidays, in 1869, measures were taken for the readmission of the State into the Union. On the 25th of January, 1870, a bill, which had passed both Houses of Congress, received the Executive signature. This bill readmitted the State under certain stringent conditions, one of the principal of which was a guarantee on the part of the State never to alter its Constitution so as to deprive negroes of the right of suffrage, nor to pass laws depriving negroes of the right to hold office, or of their school privileges. On the 27th of January, General Canby, the mili-

tary commander of the department, transferred the government of the State to the civil authorities. The Legislature met, at the call of the Governor, on the 8th of February, 1870.

By the terms of the new Constitution adopted in 1869, the right of suffrage is secured to every male citizen of the United States of the age of 21 years, who has been a resident of the State for one year, and of the county, city, or town, three months next preceding the election at which he desires to cast his vote.

The Government consists of a Governor, and Lieutenant-Governor (who is ex-officio the President of the Senate), elected by the people for four years, and a Secretary of State, Treasurer, Auditor, Second Auditor, and Register of the Land Office, elected by joint ballot of the two Houses of the Legislature. The Legislature consists of a Senate of 43 members, and a House of Delegates of 181 members. The two Houses are styled the General Assembly of the Commonwealth of Virginia.

The highest judicial body is the Supreme Court of Appeals. It consists of five judges, chosen for a term of 12 years. There are 16 Circuit Courts, the judges of which hold office for 8 years. The State is divided into 82 districts, for each of which a county judge is elected. The courts of the cities have their separate judges. The term of office of the county and city judges is 3 years. All the judges of the State are chosen by a concurrent vote of the two Houses of the General Assembly. Elections for township and city officers are held on the fourth Thursday in May, and elections for State officers and members of Congress on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November.

The State makes a liberal provision for the cause of education, and measures are now in progress for the establishment of a free school system.

Richmond, in Henrico county, is the capital of the State. For purposes of government, the State is divided into 99 counties.

HISTORY.

Virginia was the first settled of the English colonies. On the 13th of May, 1607, a party of 105 settlers, sent out by the London Company, to whom James I. had given a charter for South Virginia, settled on the north bank of the James River, and founded the town of Jamestown. This colony was composed of worthless adventurers, and came in search of gold, which, of course, was not found. It was

nominally under the control of Captain Newport, but its real leader was the celebrated Captain John Smith, one of the most remarkable men of that period. Nothing but his energy and firmness prevented the colony from becoming a disastrous failure. In 1609, the powers of the London Company were greatly enlarged, and the government of the colony placed in its hands. Additional emigrants were sent out to Virginia, to the number of about 500 persons, and Lord Delaware was appointed Governor. The settlers were greatly harassed by the savages, and suffered much from privation and famine, and in 1610 were reduced to only 60 souls, with scarcely food enough to last them ten days. They were reinforced at this juncture by the arrival of Newport, Gates, and Somers, with 150 men, who had been wrecked upon the Bermudas, on their passage from England. They expected to find the colony in a prosperous condition, and were so discouraged by the state of affairs at Jamestown, that they took the remnant of the colonists on board, and started down the river, intending to sail for Newfoundland, where they hoped to be able to take passage to England in some of the fishing vessels. Upon reaching the mouth of the James, they were met by Lord Delaware, the Governor, who had arrived from England with three ships, with supplies and additional colonists; and the whole party returned to Jamestown.

Virginia now grew rapidly. The settlement at Jamestown was placed beyond all danger of failure; the Indians were punished for their attacks on the early settlers; and additional villages were founded. In 1619, 1200 colonists were sent over, including 90 respectable young women, who were sold to the planters as wives, for 100 pounds of tobacco (worth \$75), the price of their passage from England. One hundred felons were also sent over from the English prisons, by the express order of the king, and sold to the colonists as slaves. In the same year, a Dutch trading ship anchored in the James, and sold a number of negro slaves to the planters, thus introducing African slavery into the New World. The colony continued to thrive, and in 1649, contained 15,000 white inhabitants, and 300 negroes. About 30 ships came yearly to trade, and there were nearly 30,000 horses, cattle, sheep, goats, swine, and asses within its limits.

During the great civil war in England, Virginia remained faithful to the king, and continued to maintain its loyalty, in spite of the efforts of the Parliament to win it over, until 1652, when it submitted to the Commissioners of the Commonwealth upon terms which were all that the colony could have desired. On the restoration of Charles

II., Sir William Berkeley, the leader of the Stuart party in the province, returned to Virginia, and was reëlected Governor. Charles granted many unjust privileges to his favorites, who oppressed the people of Virginia so sorely, being assisted in their oppressions by the Governor, that a portion of the people of the colony took up arms to maintain their ancient rights. They were conquered by the Governor, who treated the vanquished party with such cruelty that he was severely rebuked by the king. This struggle is generally known as "Bacon's Rebellion," from Nathaniel Bacon, the military leader of the so-called rebels.

In 1698, the town of Williamsburg was built, and named in honor of William III. The country around Jamestown being marshy and sickly, the seat of government was removed to Williamsburg. The original settlement at once fell into decay, and at present only a ruined church tower marks the site.

Virginia bore a prominent part in the wars with France. The war of 1754 originated in the efforts of the colony to break up the line of military posts which the French were establishing along the Ohio River. This struggle first brought into notice a young surveyor, George Washington, who acquired in it a reputation and experience, which made him the foremost soldier in the Province.

In 1764 the General Assembly of Virginia made an energetic and spirited protest against the claim on the part of the English Crown to tax the colonies without their consent. The colony was not represented in the first Continental Congress which met in New York, in October, 1765, the Legislature having adjourned before the invitation of Massachusetts was received; but the measures of that body were cordially endorsed at the next session of the Legislature, and throughout the whole struggle, Virginia and Massachusetts were the leading and most influential members of the colonial union. All the leading measures of resistance were originated by one or the other of these provinces. The Royal Governor, Lord Dunmore, endeavored to check the efforts of the people, and was driven out of the capital, and forced to seek refuge on board a British man-of-war. He succeeded in capturing the town of Norfolk, but was finally driven out of it, after which he bombarded it from his ships. During the summer of 1776, he continued to ravage the coast, but was finally driven southward. In 1779, the British General Mathews captured and destroyed the town of Norfolk, took the villages of Portsmouth and Gosport, and destroyed several ships of war in course of construc-

tion there, and burned or captured 130 merchant vessels in the vicinity. In 1781, Benedict Arnold, the traitor, captured and burned the village of Richmond, but being hotly pressed by the American and French forces, retreated to the lower James, and reëmbarked for Newport, Rhode Island. A few months later, Cornwallis and Phillips entered eastern Virginia, and swept it with fire and sword, destroying and stealing \$10,000,000 worth of property. These outrages were partially avenged by the capture of Cornwallis' army at Yorktown, on the 19th of October, 1781. During the war, Virginia furnished her full share of men and means to the cause, besides contributing to it many of its great leaders. She gave to it, George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, Patrick Henry, Richard Henry Lee, and many other good and great men.

At the outbreak of the war, Virginia was the first to propose a Confederation of the States, and at its close, perceiving that the system of Government in force was not suited to the necessities of the country, was the first to propose a Convention for the purpose of remedying its defects. This Convention met at Philadelphia, in 1787, and finally adopted the present Constitution of the United States, which was principally the production of James Madison, of Virginia. It was ratified by Virginia on the 25th of June, 1788, after encountering a strong opposition in the State Convention, led by Patrick Henry and George Mason.

The State, in 1784, ceded to the United States its territory northwest of the Ohio river, which has since been organized into the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin. The present State of Kentucky also formed a part of the original State of Virginia, and was erected into a separate Territory, in 1789.

During the war of 1812-15, the shores of the Chesapeake and its tributaries were ravaged by the British, and in 1814, the city of Alexandria was captured by them. During this struggle Virginia again gave a great soldier to the country, in the person of Winfield Scott, who, with Zachary Taylor, also led the American armies to victory in the war with Mexico.

In 1831 a serious insurrection occurred, under the leadership of Nat Turner, among the negroes of Southampton county. It was suppressed and the leaders were executed, but not before a number of whites had been massacred.

In 1859, the state was invaded at Harper's Ferry by John Brown and his adherents, the details of which event have already been given in another chapter.

Upon the secession of the Southern States, Virginia made great efforts to secure a peaceful solution of the troubles between the sections; but failing to accomplish this, withdrew from the Union, and joined the seceded States. Richmond was made the capital of the new Confederacy, and the Confederate forces were transferred to Virginia, which was thus made the theatre of war. The events of this unhappy struggle are too well known to need repetition here. It is sufficient to say that this State was the scene of some of the most important events of the war. Seven Federal armies were defeated, and over thirty pitched battles, besides numerous minor conflicts, were fought on its soil. Finally Richmond and Petersburg were captured by the Union army, and General Lee, the great military leader of the South, was made a prisoner with all his troops.

Virginia seceded from the Union on the 17th of April, 1861, and on the 23d of May, the ordinance of secession was ratified by a popular vote of 90,000. The people of the Western counties were opposed to this action, and being determined not to be forced out of the Union by the action of Eastern Virginia, summoned a convention, which met at Wheeling in June, 1861, and formed the new State of West Virginia, which now includes that portion of the old State lying between the Alleghany Mountains and the Ohio river.*

After the close of the war, the State was subjected to the process of reconstruction, and until January 26th, 1870, was governed by a military commander.

Virginia was greatly impoverished by the war. Her manufactures were almost totally destroyed, and her agriculture crippled to a very great degree. The State is now slowly recovering from the effects of these disasters. Now that slavery has been abolished, Virginia offers so many inducements to settlers from other States and from Europe, and such great advantages to capitalists, in its water-power and mineral resources, that there can be little doubt that a few years more will see her embarked in a career of industry and prosperity, which will far exceed anything in her past career.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the principal cities and towns are, Norfolk, Petersburg, Alexandria, Lynchburg, Portsmouth, Winchester, Fred-

* For a more complete account of this separation, see West Virginia.

ericksburg, Leesburg, Danville, Farmville, Lexington, Charlottesville, Salem, Liberty, Christiansburg, Staunton, and Wytheville.

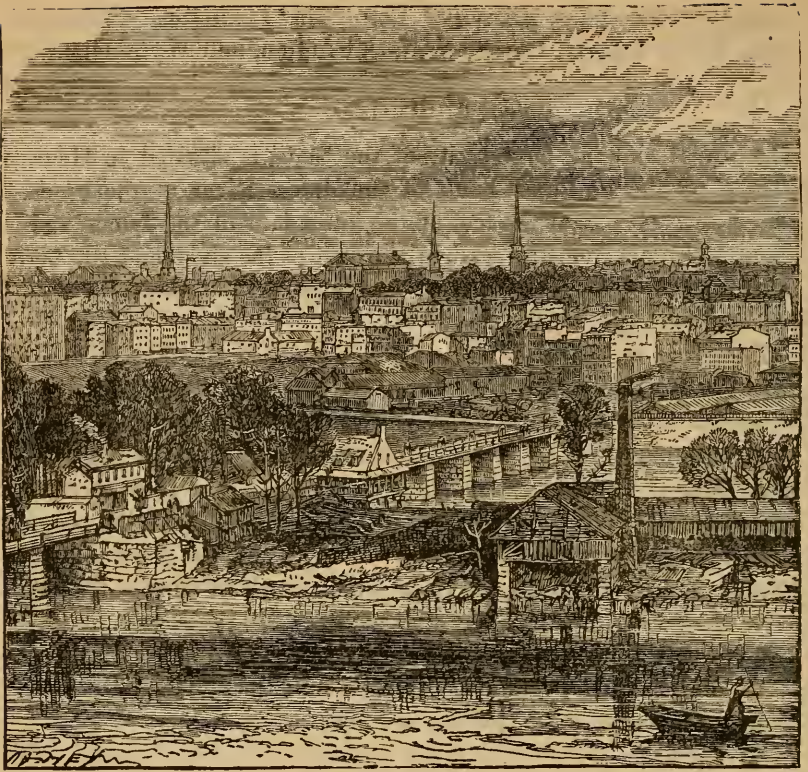
RICHMOND,

The capital and the largest city of the State, is situated in Henrico county, on the northeast bank of the James River, at the head of tide-water. It lies at the foot of the lower falls of the James, and is about 184 miles from the sea by the course of the river, and 100 miles in an air-line south-by-west from Washington. Latitude $37^{\circ} 32' 17''$ N., longitude $77^{\circ} 27' 28''$ W.

Richmond is one of the handsomest cities in the Union, and its situation is much admired for its romantic beauty. The city is built on several hills, which are separated from each other by a picturesque valley, through which flows Shockoe Creek. The principal are Shockoe and Church or Richmond hills. From any of these elevations a magnificent prospect may be gained, embracing the beautiful country around the city, and the noble river winding among its green hills, and leaping and dashing over the rocks which break its current for a distance of several miles. Three fine bridges span the stream at intervals of from 100 yards to half a mile apart. Two are used by railways entering the city, and connecting it with the States south of Virginia. The other is for vehicles and pedestrians.

Richmond is laid out with great regularity, in perfect squares. The streets are broad, straight, and well paved, and, with the exception of the business thoroughfares, are shaded with fine trees. The city is built generally of brick and stone, and the most of the houses are situated in yards adorned with flowers and shrubbery. The principal business thoroughfare, Main street, runs throughout the length of the city, and with the exception of the upper and lower portions, is one of the best-built streets in the Union. Broad street, parallel with Main, is a noble thoroughfare, and is occupied principally with retail stores. The general appearance of the city is handsome and attractive. The long streets, or those running parallel with the river, are named. Those crossing them at right-angles are numbered.

The public buildings are handsome. The *Capitol* is the most conspicuous object in the city. It stands on Shockoe Hill, in the midst of a handsome square of 10 acres. It is an imposing building, and is adorned with a portico of Ionic columns. It contains a marble statue of Washington, by Houdon, the famous French sculptor. To the west of the Capitol, and within the enclosure of the Capitol Square,



RICHMOND.

is the monument erected to Washington by the State of Virginia. It contains an equestrian statue of Washington, by Crawford, and statues of Jefferson, Mason, Henry, Marshal, Lee, and Morgan, by Crawford and Randolph Rogers. The monument is of fine granite; the statues are of bronze. To the south of the Washington monument stands a fine marble statue of Henry Clay. The Governor's Mansion, a fine old-fashioned edifice, occupies the northeast portion of the square. The *City Hall* is an elegant structure on Broad and Capitol streets, opposite the square. The *Custom House* extends from Main to Bank street, immediately south of the Capitol. It is an elegant building of granite, and contains, besides the customs offices, the city post-office, and the United States Court-rooms. During the civil war, the building was occupied by the Executive, State and Treasury Departments of the Confederate Government. The Confederate Congress sat in the Capitol.

The public schools are good, though few in number. The city also contains the *Richmond College*, conducted by the Baptist church; *St. Vincent's College*, a Roman Catholic institution; and the *Medical Department of Hampden-Sydney College*, the last of which occupies a fine granite building of Egyptian architecture. There are a number of excellent private schools and seminaries in the city, which has always been celebrated for its schools of this character. The *Virginia Historical Society* possesses a fine library. The *State Library* is in the Capitol. There are several colored schools in the city.

There are over 30 churches in Richmond, some of which are very handsome. St. John's, on Church Hill, is interesting from its historical associations.

The Penal establishments are the *City Prison* and the *State Penitentiary*. The latter is situated on a hill overlooking the river, and is a large edifice of brick with a façade nearly 300 feet in length.

The Benevolent establishments are numerous, and consist of a city Alms-house, the Bellevue Hospital, the Roman Catholic Orphan Asylum, and several societies for the assistance of the poor and distressed.

The Cemeteries are Holywood and Shockoe Hill. The former is very beautiful. In the latter are buried some of the most distinguished men of the country.

Richmond is lighted with gas, and is supplied with water from the James River. Street railways connect its principal points. It is provided with an efficient police force, and a steam fire department, and is governed by a Mayor and Council. It has always been a place of great political and commercial importance, and is noted for the culture and hospitality of its people. In 1870, the population was 51,038.

Richmond is admirably situated for commerce and manufactures. It lies in the midst of one of the finest agricultural regions of the Union, and has railway connections with all parts of the country. The James River and Kanawha Canal afford water transportation to the very heart of the Blue Ridge Mountains and the Valley of Virginia. The river is navigable to the city for vessels drawing 10 feet of water, and those drawing 15 feet can lie within 3 miles of the city. There is regular communication by steamers with Norfolk, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York. The Chesapeake and Ohio Railway is now completed across the mountains, and will soon be finished to the Ohio River. The city is one of the most important tobacco and wheat markets in the Union, and is one of the principal seats of the

manufacture of tobacco, which is exported in large quantities to the Northern cities for sale.

Richmond is already largely engaged in manufactures, and is destined to become one of the most important manufacturing centres of America. It is already famous for its flour, its mills being among the most extensive in the country. Cotton and woollen goods, paper and iron ware are produced in considerable quantities. The water-power is derived from the James River, which in the course of a few miles descends 100 feet, thus furnishing an amount of power sufficient to turn all the mills of New England. The water is never too low to be used. The civil war struck a terrible blow at the manufacturing interests of Richmond, but the city is slowly recovering its former prosperity. Five daily papers, and a number of weeklies and monthlies are published in the city.

Richmond was founded in 1742; and in 1779, while still but a small village, was made the capital of the State. In 1781, it was invaded and occupied by the British, under the command of Benedict Arnold. The invaders burned some public and some private buildings, and a quantity of tobacco, and retreated towards the lower James. In 1789, the place contained 300 houses, and a bridge was built across the river by Colonel John Mayo. In 1800, it contained 5737 inhabitants. It was from the first a place of great political importance, exercising a considerable influence over the country south of Virginia as well as over that State. After the secession of the Southern States and the beginning of hostilities in April, 1861, Richmond was made the Capital of the Confederacy, the Southern Government arriving there in June, 1861. From that time the city was the chief object of the efforts of the military forces of the United States. It was defended with great skill and determination, but was finally entered by the United States forces, on the 2d of April, 1865. It was set on fire by the Confederate forces on the night of their departure from it, and almost the entire business quarter, including the large mills, etc., was destroyed. Since then, it has been rebuilt on a handsomer and more substantial scale.

NORFOLK.

The second city of the State, is situated in Norfolk county, on the north bank of the Elizabeth River, 8 miles from Hampton Roads, 32 miles from the ocean, and 160 miles by water, or 106 miles by land, from Richmond.

The city is built principally of brick and stone, on a level plain, and is somewhat irregular in its plan. The streets are wide and are well paved, but the general appearance of the place is unattractive. There are, however, many fine stores and handsome dwellings, and of late the appearance of the city is being gradually improved. The *City Hall* and the *Custom House* are the principal buildings. The city contains 14 churches.

ALEXANDRIA,

The fourth city of the State, is situated in Alexandria county, on the right bank of the Potomac River, 7 miles below Washington City, with which it is connected by a steam ferry and a railway. The city is delightfully situated on undulating ground, and commands a fine view of the river and of Washington City. It is substantially built, and possesses some handsome buildings, but its general appearance is that of a quiet inland town. The streets cross each other at right angles, and are generally well paved. Some of them are shaded with magnificent trees. The city is supplied with water from Cameron's Run, a small stream close by, and is lighted with gas. It contains several public and private schools, and is the seat of a *Theological Seminary* and of a *High School* of the Protestant Episcopal Church. There are about 12 churches, and 3 newspaper offices in the city. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 13,570.

Alexandria was once a place of considerable commercial importance, and possessed a large foreign and domestic trade. Some shipping is still owned in the port. The river furnishes unlimited water transportation to the sea, which is continued to the mountains by the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, and there is railway communication with all parts of the country. The city seemed on the point of recovering some share of its former importance when the civil war put an end to its hopes.

Alexandria was settled in 1748, and was incorporated as a city in 1779. In 1801 it was ceded with other territory to the General Government, and constituted a part of the District of Columbia until 1844, when it was restored to the State of Virginia. In the spring of 1861 it was occupied by the United States forces, and was held by them during the war.

Eight miles below Alexandria, on the same side of the Potomac, and within the limits of Fairfax county, is Mount Vernon, the residence and the site of the grave of George Washington. A few years previous to the civil war it was purchased from the Washington



MOUNT VERNON.

family by a fund raised through the efforts of Edward Everett and others, and made the property of the nation. During the civil war it lay between the lines of the two armies, each of which scrupulously respected it.

“Mount Vernon, then known as the Hunting Creek estate, was bequeathed by Augustine Washington, who died in 1743, to Lawrence Washington, who received a captain’s commission in one of the four regiments raised in the colonies, to aid the mother country in her struggle against France and Spain. It was named after Admiral Vernon, under whom Lawrence Washington had served, and for whom he cherished a strong affection. The central part of the mansion, which is of wood, was erected by Lawrence, and the wings by George Washington. It contains many valuable historical relics, among which are the key of the Bastille, presented by Lafayette, portions of the military and personal furniture of Washington, the pitcher, portrait, etc. The tomb of Washington, which is now fast going to decay, occupies a more picturesque situation than the present one, being upon an elevation in full view of the river. The new tomb,

into which the remains were removed in 1837, and subsequently placed within a marble sarcophagus, stands in a more retired situation, a short distance from the house. It consists of a plain but solid structure of brick, with an iron gate at its entrance. Above the arch of this vault are inscribed the following lines:

‘ Within this enclosure rest the remains of
GENERAL GEORGE WASHINGTON.’

“The Mount Vernon domain, which has remained since the death of Washington in the possession of his descendants, was purchased a few years ago for the sum of \$200,000, raised by subscription, under the auspices of a society of ladies known as the ‘Ladies’ Mount Vernon Union Association.’ It is therefore, and will continue to be, the property of the nation. In this noble movement the late Hon. Edward Everett took a distinguished and active part.”

LYNCHBURG,

The fifth city of the State, is situated in Campbell county, on the south bank of the James River, 120 miles west-southwest of Richmond, and 20 miles from the Blue Ridge. It is built along a steep declivity, which rises from the river shore, and is situated in a beautiful and picturesque country. It is irregularly laid off, but contains several handsome buildings. It is lighted with gas, and is supplied with water from the river, which is pumped into a reservoir situated 253 feet above the level of the river.

Lynchburg is one of the principal railway centres of the State, being the junction of roads leading directly from Norfolk, Richmond, Washington City, and Bristol, Tennessee. It is connected with Richmond by the James River Canal. These roads and the canal have made it a place of considerable trade. It is one of the principal tobacco markets of the State, and has also a large grain trade. Large quantities of tobacco are manufactured here. The city is, to a limited extent, engaged in manufactures, the river affording extensive water-power. Tobacco, cotton and woollen goods, and flour are the principal articles.

The city contains 10 churches, several public and private schools, and 3 newspaper offices.

It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870 the population was 6825.

Lynchburg was founded in 1786, and named after John Lynch, one of the original settlers. In 1805 it was incorporated as a city.

MISCELLANIES.

THE FIRST LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY IN AMERICA.

One of the first acts of Yeardley, in Virginia, was to emancipate the remaining servants of the colony. The labor now being free, each man enjoying the fruits of his own industry, and anxious to increase his store, there was no fear of scarcity, and no time or opportunity for mutiny among the scattered and industrious planters. With the increasing strength and independence of the colony, all fear of the savages had vanished. It is manifest that in these altered circumstances a modification of the despotic government ought to have been made, because its severity was no longer necessary, and while the power existed it might be abused, as the colony seriously experienced in the case of Argall. The moment the colonists began to take an interest in the country, by the enjoyment of their own labor and the possession of property, it was right that they should have some share in that government, in the prudent conduct of which they were most interested. Yeardley was aware of this, for, without any authority from home which we can trace, he called together a General Assembly, consisting of two members from every town, borough, or hundred, besides the Governor and Council, which met at Jamestown, near the end of June, 1619. In this Assembly seven corporations were represented, and four more were laid off in the course of the same summer.

In this first North American legislature, wherein were "debated all matters thought expedient for the good of the colony," several acts were passed which were pronounced by the treasurer of the company to be "well and judiciously carried," but which are unfortunately lost to posterity. This was an eventful year to the colony, for, in addition to their Assembly, a college was established in Henrico, with a liberal endowment. King James had exacted £15,000 from the several bishops of his kingdom for the purpose of educating Indian children, and 10,000 acres of land were now added by the company; and the original design was extended to make it a seminary of learning also for the English. One hundred idle and dissolute persons, in custody for various misdemeanors, were transported by the authority of the king and against the wishes of the company to Virginia. They were distributed through the colony as servants to the planters; and the degradation of the colonial character, produced by such a process, was endured for the assistance derived from them in executing the various plans of industry, that were daily extending themselves. This beginning excited in the colonists a desire for using more extensively other labor than their own, an opportunity for the gratification of which, unfortunately, too soon occurred. In this eventful year, too, a new article was introduced into the trade of the company with the colony, by the good policy of the treasurer, Sir Edward Sandys, which produced a material change in the views and feelings of the colonists with regard to the country. At the accession of Sir Edward to office, after twelve years' labor, and an expenditure of £80,000 by the company, there were in the colony no more than 600 persons, men, women, and children. In one year he provided a passage for 1261 new emigrants. Among these were 90 agreeable young women, poor, but respectable and incorrupt, to furnish wives to the colonists. The wisdom of this policy is evident—the men had hitherto regarded Virginia only as a place of temporary sojourn for the acquisition of wealth, and never dreamed of making a permanent residence in a place where it was impos-

sible to enjoy any of the comforts of domestic life. They had consequently none of those endearing ties of home and kindred to bind them to the country, or attach them to its interests, which are so necessary to make a good citizen. This new commodity was transported at the expense of the colony, and sold to the young planters, and the following year another consignment was made of 60 young maids of virtuous education, young, handsome, and well recommended. A wife in the first lot sold generally for 100 pounds of tobacco, but as the value of the new article became known in the market, the price rose, and a wife would bring 150 pounds of tobacco. A debt for a wife was of higher dignity than other debts, and to be paid first. As an additional inducement to marriage, married men were generally preferred in the selection of officers for the colony. Domestic ties were formed, habits of thrift ensued, comforts were increased, and happiness diffused; the tide of emigration swelled: within three years 50 patents for land were granted, and 3500 persons found their way to Virginia.

In the month of August of this year an event occurred which stamped its impress upon the Constitution of Virginia, and indeed of the whole southern portion of America. This was the introduction of 20 African slaves by a Dutch vessel, which availed itself of the freedom of commerce, which had been released from the shackles of the company's monopoly in the early part of this year, to rivet the bonds of slavery upon a portion of their fellow creatures and their descendants. The indented and covenanted servants which had been long known in Virginia, and whose condition was little better than that of slavery, was a small evil and easily removed, because they were of the same color and country with their masters; when they were emancipated, they leaped at once from their shackles to the full dignity of freedom. No one scorned to associate with them, and no one spurned their alliance; if honorable and worthy in other respects, they were equal to their masters, and might even rise to distinction. But not so the poor African. Nature has fixed upon him a stamp which cannot be erased or forgotten, even when his fetters have crumbled to the dust.

TREATY BETWEEN VIRGINIA AND ENGLAND.

In 1650, the Government of the Commonwealth of England sent a powerful fleet to reduce the Colony of Virginia to submission, as that colony had until then refused to acknowledge any authority but that of King Charles. The fleet cast anchor before Jamestown, in the month of June, 1650. The colonists made a formidable show of resistance, which so impressed the Cromwellian officers that they consented to receive the surrender of the colony upon the following terms, which were highly honorable to Virginia. The reader will notice that the poor little colony is recognized by the Commonwealth as its "equal."

The articles of surrender are concluded between the Commissioners of the Commonwealth, and the Council of State and Grand Assembly of Virginia, as equal treating with equal. It secures—

1st. That this should be considered a voluntary act, not forced or constrained by a conquest upon the country; and that the colonists should have and enjoy such freedoms and privileges as belong to the freeborn people of England.

2dly. That the Grand Assembly, as formerly, should convene and transact the affairs of Virginia, doing nothing contrary to the Government of the Commonwealth or laws of England.

3dly. That there should be a full and total remission of all acts, words, or writings against the Parliament.

4thly. That Virginia should have her ancient bounds and limits, granted by the charters of the former kings, and that a new charter was to be sought from Parliament to that effect, against such as had trespassed upon their ancient rights. [This clause would seem to be aimed at some of the neighboring colonies.]

5thly. That all patents of land under the seal of the colony, granted by the Governor, should remain in full force.

6thly. That the privilege of fifty acres of land for every person emigrating to the colony, should remain in full force.

7thly. That the people of Virginia have free trade, as the people of England enjoy, with all places and nations, according to the laws of the Commonwealth; and that Virginia should enjoy equal privileges, in every respect, with any other colony in America.

8thly. That Virginia should be free from all taxes, customs, and impositions whatsoever; and that none should be imposed upon them without the consent of their Grand Assembly; and no forts or castles be erected, or garrison maintained, without their consent.

9thly. That no charge should be required from the country on account of the expense incurred in the present fleet.

10thly. That this agreement should be tendered to all persons, and that such as should refuse to subscribe to it, should have a year's time to remove themselves and effects from Virginia, and in the meantime enjoy equal justice.

The remaining articles were of less importance. This was followed by a supplemental treaty, for the benefit of the Governor and Council, and such soldiers as had served against the Commonwealth in England—allowing them the most favorable terms.

ANECDOTES OF PATRICK HENRY.

The wants of a large family compelled his father to find employment for his sons. At the age of 15, Patrick was put behind the counter of a country merchant, and the year following entered into business with his elder brother, William, with whom was to devolve its chief management; but such were his idle habits, that he left the burden of the concern to Patrick, who managed wretchedly. The drudgery of business became intolerable to him, and then, too, "he could not find it in his heart" to disappoint any one who came for *credit*; and he was very easily satisfied with apologies for non-payment. He sought relief from his cares by having recourse to the violin, flute, and reading. An opportunity was presented of pursuing his favorite study of the human character, and the character of every customer underwent this scrutiny.

One year put an end to the mercantile concern, and the two or three following Patrick was engaged in settling up its affairs. At 18 years of age he married Miss Shelton, the daughter of a neighboring farmer of respectability, and commenced cultivating a small farm; but his aversion to systematic labor, and want of skill, compelled him to abandon it at the end of two years. Selling off all his little possessions at a sacrifice, he again embarked in the hazardous business of merchandise. His old business habits still continued, and not unfrequently he shut up his store to indulge in the favorite sports of his youth. His reading was of a more serious character; history, ancient and modern, he became a proficient in. Livy, however, was his favorite; and having procured a copy, he read it

through at least once a year in the early part of his life. In a few years his second mercantile experiment left him a bankrupt, and without any friends enabled to assist him further. All other means failing, he determined to try the law. His unfortunate habits, unsuitable to so laborious a profession, and his pecuniary situation unfitting him for an extensive course of reading, led every one to suppose that he would not succeed. With only six weeks' study, he obtained a license to practise, he being then 24 years of age. He was then not only unable to draw a declaration or a plea, but incapable, it is said, of the most common and simple business of his profession. It was not until his 27th year that an opportunity occurred for a trial of his strength at the bar. In the meantime the wants and distresses of his family were extreme. They lived mostly with his father-in-law, Mr. Shelton, who then kept a tavern at Hanover Courthouse. Whenever Mr. Shelton was from home, Henry took his place in the tavern, which is the identical public house now standing at Hanover Courthouse. The occasion on which his genius first broke forth, was the controversy between the clergy and the Legislature and people of the State, relating to the stipend claimed by the former. The cause was popularly known as the *Parsons' cause*. A decision of the court on a demurrer, in favor of the claims of the clergy, had left nothing undetermined but the amount of damages in the cause which was pending. Soon after the opening of the court, the cause was called. The scene which ensued is thus vividly described by Wirt :

“The array before Mr. Henry’s eyes was now most fearful. On the bench sat more than 20 clergymen, the most learned men in the colony, and the most capable, as well as the severest critics before whom it was possible for him to have made his *début*. The courthouse was crowded with an overwhelming multitude, and surrounded with an immense and anxious throng, who, not finding room to enter, were endeavoring to listen without, in the deepest attention. But there was something still more awfully disconcerting than all this ; for in the chair of the presiding magistrate sat no other person than his own father. Mr. Lyons opened the cause very briefly : in the way of argument he did nothing more than explain to the jury, that the decision upon the demurrer had put the Act of 1750 entirely out of the way, and left the law of 1748 as the only standard of their damages ; he then concluded with a highly-wrought eulogium on the benevolence of the clergy. And now came on the first trial of Patrick Henry’s strength. No one had ever heard him speak, and curiosity was on tiptoe. He rose very awkwardly, and faltered much in his exordium. The people hung their heads at so unpromising a commencement ; the clergy were observed to exchange sly looks with each other ; and his father is described as having almost sunk with confusion from his seat. But these feelings were of short duration, and soon gave place to others of a very different character. For now were those wonderful faculties which he possessed for the first time developed ; and now was first witnessed that mysterious and almost supernatural transformation of appearance, which the fire of his own eloquence never failed to work in him. For, as his mind rolled along, and began to glow from its own action, all the *axuvix* of the clown seemed to shed themselves spontaneously. His attitude by degrees became erect and lofty. The spirit of his genius awakened all his features. His countenance shone with a nobleness and grandeur which it had never before exhibited. There was a lightning in his eyes which seemed to rivet the spectator. His action became graceful, bold, and commanding ; and in the tones of his voice, but more especially in his emphasis, there was a peculiar charm, a magic, of which any one who

ever heard him will speak as soon as he is named, but of which no one can give any adequate description. They can only say that it struck upon the ear and upon the heart, *in a manner which language cannot tell*. Add to all these his wonder-working fancy, and the peculiar phraseology in which he clothed its images; for he painted to the heart with a force that almost petrified it. In the language of those who heard him on this occasion, 'he made their blood run cold, and their hair to rise on end.'

"It will not be difficult for any one who ever heard this most extraordinary man to believe the whole account of this transaction, which is given by his surviving hearers; and, from their account, the courthouse of Hanover county must have exhibited, on this occasion, a scene as picturesque as has been ever witnessed in real life. They say that the people, whose countenances had fallen as he arose, had heard but a very few sentences before they began to look up; then to look at each other with surprise, as if doubting the evidence of their own senses; then, attracted by some strong gesture, struck by some majestic attitude, fascinated by the spell of his eye, the charm of his emphasis, and the varied and commanding expression of his countenance, they could look away no more. In less than 20 minutes they might be seen, in every part of the house, on every bench, in every window, stooping forward from their stands, in death-like silence; their features fixed in amazement and awe, all their senses listening and riveted upon the speaker, as if to catch the last strain of some heavenly visitant. The mockery of the clergy was soon turned into alarm, their triumph into confusion and despair, and at one burst of his rapid and overwhelming invective, they fled from the bench in precipitation and terror. As for the father, such was his surprise, such his amazement, such his rapture, that, forgetting where he was, and the character which he was filling, tears of ecstasy streamed down his cheeks, without the power or inclination to repress them.

"The jury seem to have been so completely bewildered that they lost sight not only of the Act of 1748, but that of 1758 also; for, thoughtless even of the admitted right of the plaintiff, they had scarcely left the bar when they returned with a verdict of *one penny damages*. A motion was made for a new trial; but the court, too, had now lost the equipoise of their judgment, and overruled the motion by a unanimous vote. The verdict, and judgment overruling the motion, were followed by redoubled acclamation, from within and without the house. The people, who had with difficulty kept their hands off their champion from the moment of closing his harangue, no sooner saw the fate of the cause finally sealed, than they seized him at the bar, and, in spite of his own exertions and the continued cry of 'order' from the sheriffs and the court, they bore him out of the courthouse, and, raising him on their shoulders, carried him about the yard in a kind of electioneering triumph."

From this time Mr. Henry's star was in the ascendant, and he at once rose to the head of his profession in that section. In the autumn of 1764, having removed to Roundabout, in Louisa county, he was employed to argue a case before a committee on elections of the House of Burgesses. He distinguished himself by a brilliant display on the right of suffrage. Such a burst of eloquence from a man of so humble an appearance, struck the committee with amazement, and not a sound but from his lips broke the deep silence of the room.

In 1765, he was elected a member of the House of Burgesses, when he introduced his celebrated resolutions on the Stamp Act. Among his papers there was found, after his decease, one sealed and thus endorsed:

"Enclosed are the resolutions of the Virginia Assembly, in 1765, concerning the Stamp Act. Let my executors open this paper." On the back of the paper containing the resolutions was the following endorsement: "The within passed the House of Burgesses in May, 1765. They formed the first opposition to the Stamp Act, and the scheme of taxing America by the British Parliament. All the colonies, either through fear, or the want of opportunity to form an opposition, or from influence of some kind or other, had remained silent. I had been for the first time elected a Burgess a few days before, was young, inexperienced, unacquainted with the forms of the house and the members who composed it. Finding the men of weight averse to opposition, and the commencement of the tax at hand, and that no person was likely to step forth, I determined to venture; and alone, unaided and unassisted, on the blank leaf of an old law-book, wrote the within. Upon offering them to the house, violent debates ensued. Many threats were uttered, and much abuse cast on me by the parties for submission. After a long and warm contest, the resolutions passed by a very small majority, perhaps one or two only. The alarm spread throughout America with astonishing quickness, and the ministerial party were overwhelmed. The great point of resistance to British taxation was universally established in the colonies. This brought on the war, which finally separated the two countries, and gave independence to ours. Whether this will prove a blessing or a curse, will depend upon the use our people make of the blessings which a gracious God hath bestowed on us. If they are wise, they will be great and happy. If they are of a contrary character, they will be miserable. Righteousness alone can exalt them as a nation. Reader, whoever thou art, remember this; and, in thy sphere, practise virtue thyself, and encourage it in others. P. HENRY."

It was in the midst of the above-mentioned debate that he exclaimed, in tones of thunder, "Cæsar had his Brutus—Charles the First his Cromwell—and George the Third—" ("Treason!" cried the speaker—"Treason! treason!" echoed from every part of the house. Henry faltered not for a moment; taking a loftier attitude, and fixing on the speaker an eye of fire, he finished his sentence with the firmest emphasis)—"*may profit by their example. If this be treason, make the most of it.*" Henceforth Mr. Henry was the idol of the people of Virginia, and his influence as one of the great champions of liberty extended throughout America. In 1769, he was admitted to the bar of the general court. Without that legal learning which study alone can supply, he was deficient as a mere lawyer. But before a jury, in criminal cases particularly, his genius displayed itself most brilliantly. His deep knowledge of the springs of human action, his power of reading in the fitting expressions of the countenance what was passing in the hearts of his hearers, has rarely been possessed by any one in so great a degree. In 1767 or 1768, Mr. Henry removed back to Hanover, and continued a member of the House of Burgesses until the close of the Revolution, acting upon its most important committees, and infusing a spirit of bold opposition in its members to the pretensions of Britain. He was a delegate to the first Colonial Congress, which assembled Sept. 4, 1774, at Philadelphia.

Upon Lord Dunmore's seizing the gunpowder at Williamsburg, in the night after the battle of Lexington, Henry summoned volunteers to meet him; and, marching down towards the capitol, compelled the agent of Dunmore to give a pecuniary compensation for it. This was the first military movement in Virginia. The Colonial Convention of 1775 elected him the colonel of the first regiment.

and the commander of "all the forces raised and to be raised for the defence of the colony." Soon resigning his command, he was elected a delegate to the Convention, and not long after, in 1776, the *first* Governor of the commonwealth, an office he held by successive re-elections until 1779, when, without an intermission, he was no longer constitutionally eligible. While holding that office, he was signally serviceable in sustaining public spirit during the gloomiest period of the Revolution, providing recruits, and crushing the intrigues of the Tories.

On leaving the office of Governor, he served, until the end of the war, in the Legislature, when he was again elected Governor, until the state of his affairs caused him to resign in the autumn of 1786. Until 1794 he regularly attended the courts, where his great reputation obtained for him a lucrative business. "In 1788 he was a member of the Convention of Virginia, which so ably and eloquently discussed the Constitution of the United States. He employed his masterly eloquence, day after day, in opposition to the proposed Constitution. His hostility to it proceeded entirely from an apprehension that the Federal Government would swallow the sovereignty of the States; and that ultimately the liberty of the people would be destroyed, or crushed, by an overgrown and ponderous consolidation of political power. The Constitution having been adopted, the Government organized, and Washington elected President, his repugnance measurably abated. The chapter of amendments considerably neutralized his objections; but, nevertheless, it is believed that his acquiescence resulted more from the consideration of a citizen's duty, confidence in the Chief Magistrate, and a hopeful reliance on the wisdom and virtue of the people, rather than from any material change in his opinions."

In 1794, Mr. Henry retired from the bar. In 1796, the post of governor was once more tendered to him, and refused. In 1798, the strong and animated resolutions of the Virginia Assembly, in opposition to the alien and sedition laws, which laws he was in favor of, "conjured up the most frightful visions of civil war, disunion, blood, and anarchy; and under the impulse of these phantoms, to make what *he* considered a virtuous effort for his country, he presented himself in Charlotte county as a candidate for the House of Delegates, at the spring election of 1799," although he had retired to private life three years previously.

His speech on this occasion, before the polls were opened, was the last effort of his eloquence. "The power of the noon-day sun was gone; but its setting splendors were not less beautiful and touching." Mr. Henry was elected by his usual commanding majority, and the most formidable preparations were made to oppose him in the Assembly. But "the disease which had been preying upon him for two years now hastened to its crisis; and on the 6th of June, 1799, this friend of liberty and man was no more."

By his first wife he had six children, and by his last, six sons and three daughters. He left them a large landed property. He was temperate and frugal in his habits of living, and seldom drank anything but water. He was nearly six feet in height, spare, and raw-boned, and with a slight stoop in his shoulders; his complexion dark and sallow; his countenance grave, thoughtful, and penetrating, and strongly marked with the lines of profound reflection, which with his earnest manner, and the habitual knitting and contracting of his brows, gave at times an expression of severity. "He was gifted with a strong and musical voice, and a most expressive countenance, and he acquired particular skill in the use of them. . . . He could be vehement, insinuating, humorous, and sarcastic, by turns, and always with the utmost effect. He was a natural orator of the

highest order, combining imagination, acuteness, dexterity, and ingenuity, with the most forcible action, and extraordinary powers of face and utterance. As a statesman, his principal merits were sagacity and boldness. His name is brilliantly and lastingly connected with the history of his country's emancipation."

"In private life, Mr. Henry was as amiable as he was brilliant in his public career. He was an exemplary Christian, and his illustrious life was greatly ornamented by the religion which he professed. In his will he left the following testimony respecting the Christian religion: 'I have now disposed of all my property to my family. There is one thing more I wish I could give them, and that is the Christian religion. If they have that, and I had not given one shilling, they would be *rich*; and if they have not that, and I had given them the whole world, they would be *poor*.'"

SPEECH OF LOGAN, A MINGO CHIEF.

[This celebrated chief was distinguished for magnanimity in war, and greatness of soul in peace. He was always acknowledged the friend of the white people, until the year 1774, when his brother and others of his family were murdered by the whites. This drew on a bloody war with the whites, and the Indians were obliged to sue for peace. The following speech was delivered at a treaty held by Governor Dunmore, of Virginia, with the Mingoës, Shawanese, and Delawares. Logan, though desirous of peace, remained in his cabin in silence, till a messenger was sent to him, to know whether he would accede to the proposals. Logan, after shedding many tears for the loss of his friends, answered as follows:]

"I appeal to any white man to say, if ever he entered Logan's cabin hungry, and he gave him not meat: if ever he came cold and naked, and he clothed him not. During the course of the last long and bloody war, Logan remained idle in his cabin, an advocate for peace. Such was my love for the whites, that my countrymen pointed as they passed, and said, 'Logan is the friend of white men.' I had even thought to have lived with you, but for the injuries of one man. Colonel Cresap, the last spring, in cold blood, and unprovoked, murdered all the relations of Logan, not even sparing my women and children. There runs not a drop of my blood in the veins of any living creature. This called on me for revenge. I have sought it: I have killed many: I have fully glutted my vengeance. For my country, I rejoice at the beams of peace: but do not harbor a thought that mine is the joy of fear. Logan never felt fear. He will not turn on his heel to save his life. Who is there to mourn for Logan?—Not one."

WASHINGTON AND THE WIDOW CUSTIS.

It was in 1758 that Washington, attired in a military undress, and attended by a body servant, tall and *militaire* as his chief, crossed the ferry called Williams's, over the Pamunkey, a branch of York River. On the boat touching the southern or New Kent side, the soldier's progress was arrested by one of those personages who give the beau idéal of the Virginia gentleman of the old régime, the very soul of kindness and hospitality. It was in vain the soldier urged his business at Williamsburg, important communications to the Governor, etc. Mr. Chamberlayne, on whose domain the *militaire* had just landed, would hear of no excuse. Colonel Washington was a name and character so dear to all Virginians, that his passing by one of the castles of Virginia, without calling and partaking of the hospitalities of the host, was entirely out of the question. The colonel, however,

did not surrender at discretion, but stoutly maintained his ground till Chamberlayne, bringing up his reserve in the intimation that he would introduce his friend to a young and charming widow, then beneath his roof, the soldier capitulated, on condition that he should dine—only dine—and then, by pressing his charger and borrowing of the night, he would reach Williamsburg before his excellency could shake off his morning slumbers. Orders were accordingly issued to Bishop, the colonel's body servant and faithful follower, who, together with the fine English charger, had been bequeathed by the dying Braddock to Major Washington, on the famed and fated field of Monongahela. Bishop, bred in the school of European discipline, raised his hand to his cap, as much as to say, "Your orders shall be obeyed."

The colonel now proceeded to the mansion, and was introduced to various guests, (for when was a Virginia domicil of the olden time without guests?) and, above all, to the charming widow. Tradition relates that they were mutually pleased, on this, their first interview—nor is it remarkable; they were of an age when impressions are strongest. The lady was fair to behold, of fascinating manners, and splendidly endowed with worldly benefits. The hero was fresh from his early fields, redolent of fame, and with a form on which "every god did seem to set his seal, to give the world assurance of a man."

The morning passed pleasantly away, evening came, with Bishop, true to his orders and firm at his post, holding the favorite charger with one hand, while the other was waiting to offer the ready stirrup. The sun sunk in the horizon, and yet the colonel appeared not. "'Twas strange, 'twas passing strange;" surely he was not wont to be a single moment behind his appointments—for he was the most punctual of all men.

Meantime, the host enjoyed the scene of the veteran at the gate, while the colonel was so agreeably employed in the parlor; and proclaiming that no visitor ever left his home at sunset, his military guest was, without much difficulty, persuaded to order Bishop to put up the horses for the night. The sun rode high in the heavens the ensuing day, when the enamored soldier pressed with his spur his charger's side, and speeded on his way to the seat of government, where, having dispatched his public business, he retraced his steps, and, at the White House, the engagement took place, with preparations for marriage.

And much hath the biographer heard of that marriage, from the gray-haired domestics who waited at the board where love made the feast and Washington the guest. And rare and high was the revelry at that palmy period of Virginia's festal age; for many were gathered to that marriage, of the good, the great, the gifted, and they, with joyous acclamations, hailed in Virginia's youthful hero a happy and prosperous bridegroom.

"And so you remember when Colonel Washington came a courting of your young mistress?" said the biographer to old Cully, in his hundredth year. "Ay, master, that I do," replied the ancient family servant, who had lived to see five generations; "great times, sir, great times—shall never see the like again!" "And Washington looked something like a man, a proper man—hey, Cully?" "Never seed the like, sir—never the like of him, though I have seen many in my day—so tall, so straight! and then he sat on a horse and rode with such an air! Ah, sir, he was like no one else. Many of the grandest gentlemen, in the gold lace, were at the wedding; but none looked like the man himself." Strong, indeed, must have been the impression which the person and the manner of Washington made upon the "rude, untutored mind" of this poor negro, since the lapse of three-quarters of a century had not sufficed to efface it.

The precise date of the marriage the biographer has been unable to discover, having in vain searched among the records of the vestry of St. Peter's church, New Kent, of which the Rev. Mr. Munson, a Cambridge scholar, was the rector, and performed the ceremony, it is believed, about 1759. A short time after their marriage, Colonel and Mrs. Washington removed to Mount Vernon, on the Potomac, and permanently settled there.

"This union," says Sparks, "was in every respect felicitous. It continued forty years. To her intimate acquaintances and to the nation, the character of Mrs. Washington was ever a theme of praise. Affable and courteous, exemplary in her deportment, remarkable for her deeds of charity and piety, unostentatious, and without vanity, she adorned by her domestic virtues the sphere of private life, and filled with dignity every station in which she was placed."

Previous to his acquaintance with Mrs. Custis, Washington had been pleased with other ladies. The author above quoted on this point says, that in 1756, "While in New York, he was lodged and kindly entertained at the house of Mr. Beverley Robinson, between whom and himself an intimacy of friendship subsisted, which, indeed, continued without change, till severed by their opposite fortunes twenty years afterwards in the Revolution. It happened that Miss Mary Philips, a sister of Mrs. Robinson, and a young lady of rare accomplishments, was an inmate of the family. The charms of this lady made a deep impression upon the heart of the Virginia colonel. He went to Boston, returned, and was again welcomed to the hospitality of Mr. Robinson. He lingered there till duty called him away; but he was careful to intrust his secret to a confidential friend, whose letters kept him informed of every important event. In a few months, intelligence came, that a rival was in the field, and that the consequences could not be answered for, if he delayed to renew his visits to New York. Whether time, the bustle of a camp, or the scenes of war had moderated his admiration, or whether he despaired of success, is not known. He never saw the lady again till she was married to that same rival, Captain Morris, his former associate in arms, and one of Braddock's aids-de-camp.

"He had before felt the influence of the tender passion. At the age of 17, he was smitten by the graces of a fair one, whom he called a 'lowland beauty,' and whose praises he recorded in glowing strains, while wandering with his surveyor's compass among the Alleghany Mountains. On that occasion he wrote desponding letters to a friend, and indited plaintive verses, but never ventured to reveal his emotions to the lady who was unconsciously the cause of his pains."

THE DEATH OF WASHINGTON.

Tobias Lear, a gentleman of fine education, who was Washington's Secretary for a long time, gave a simple but graphic account of the scenes at the time of the death of Washington. It will be remembered that the malady was violent inflammation of the throat. On the first attack, Washington paid no attention to it, and on being advised to take some simple remedy for hoarseness, he said, "No, you know I never take anything for a cold. Let it go as it came." That was on Friday evening, the 13th of December, 1799. Between 2 and 3 o'clock the next morning, he awoke Mrs. Washington, and, with great difficulty of utterance, told her he was very unwell, and had had an ague. He would not permit her to rise to procure a remedy, lest she should take cold; but at daylight, when the servant came to make the fire in the room, she was sent to call Mr. Lear.

Washington was then breathing with great difficulty, and one of the overseers was called in to bleed him, while a servant was dispatched for Doctor Craik. The bleeding afforded no relief. Dr. Craik arrived about 9 o'clock, and other physicians were sent for. But all their remedies were applied in vain. The malady increased in violence, and at 4 o'clock in the afternoon the General whispered, "I find I am going. My breath cannot last long. I believed from the first that the disorder would prove fatal." Between 5 and 6 o'clock, Dr. Craik went to the bed and asked the sufferer if he could sit up. He held out his hand, and was raised up. He then said to the several physicians present, "I feel myself going; I thank you for your attentions; but I pray you to take no more trouble about me." He lay down again, and all retired except Dr. Craik. He continued in the same situation, uneasy and restless, but without complaining; frequently asking what hour it was.

At about 8 o'clock, the physicians came into the room and applied blisters and cataplasms of bran to his legs and feet, after which they went out, except Dr. Craik, without a ray of hope. About 10 o'clock, he made several attempts to speak, and at length, with great difficulty, he whispered to Mr. Lear, "I am just going. Have me decently buried; and do not let my body be put into the vault in less than three days after I am dead." He then looked at Mr. Lear, and said, "Do you understand me?" Mr. Lear replied, "Yes," when the expiring Patriot said, "It is well." These were his last words.

About ten minutes before his death, his breathing became easier. He felt of his own pulse, and a few moments afterwards expired. The hour was 11 o'clock on Saturday evening. The only persons in the room at the time were Mrs. Washington, Dr. Craik, Mr. Lear, Mrs. Forbes, the housekeeper, Washington's favorite house-servant Christopher, and Caroline, Molly, and Charlotte, other servants. Mr. Lear held the hand of Washington to his bosom. Dr. Craik stood weeping near. Mrs. Washington sat at the foot of the bed, and Christopher was at its side. When all was silent, Mrs. Washington asked, with a firm and collected voice, "Is he gone?" All were too full for utterance, but an affirmative sign assured her that he was no more. "'Tis well," she said, in the same voice, "all is over now; I shall soon follow him; I have no more trials to pass through."

NORTH CAROLINA.

Area,	50,704 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	992,622
Population in 1870,	1,071,404

THE State of North Carolina, one of the original members of the Union, lies between $33^{\circ} 53'$ and $36^{\circ} 33'$ N. latitude, and between $75^{\circ} 25'$ and $84^{\circ} 30'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Virginia and Tennessee, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by South Carolina, Georgia, and the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by Tennessee. Its extreme length, from east to west, is about 450 miles, and its extreme width, from north to south, about 180 miles.

TOPOGRAPHY.

In the southern and southeastern parts of the State, the surface is level and sandy, and often marshy. These swamp lands are owned by the Board of Literature, in trust for the Public Schools, and are now offered to actual settlers on very liberal terms. "The better class of these lands are generally covered with a heavy and dense growth of timber, vines, reeds, and grass; the soil is from five to fifteen feet deep, and consists of decomposed vegetable matter, fine sand, and finely comminuted clay. It produces exuberantly all the grains, grass, cotton, rice, peas, potatoes, turnips, pumpkins, melons, the garden vegetables, apples, peaches, and grapes; but the best test of its fertility is its growth of Indian corn, an exhausting crop, which it will yield in large amounts, from year to year, without manures or stimulants, and for an indefinite period. It will not produce as much per acre as the heavy clay soils in the highest state of improvement; but considering

the difference of the expense of production, the crops of the former are vastly the more profitable. The average yield of Indian corn per acre, without the application of fertilizers or stimulants, is from fifty to seventy-five bushels; and experience has proved that this will continue, from year to year, for more than a century; while science infers, from the facts of the past and from careful analyses, that even two centuries of close cultivation will not exhaust the natural and ever renewing fertility of these soils. The swamps of eastern North Carolina do not generate the malaria which, in the marshy regions further south, causes malignant fevers; and the experience of a large population devoted for over a century to open-air pursuits, will confirm the statement that the laborers here, in the woods, in the fields, and on the waters, are generally as healthy as in any part of the country."

The great Dismal Swamp, already described, occupies the upper part of the counties lying immediately north of Albemarle Sound.

About sixty miles back from the coast, the surface begins to rise, and forms a fine hill country in the central part of the State. The western part is traversed by the ranges of the Alleghany Mountains, one of which (the Iron Mountains) forms the boundary between North Carolina and Tennessee. These mountains are rarely lower than 1000 feet. The principal peaks are Clingman's Peak, 6941 feet, and Mount Mitchell, 6732 feet high, which form parts of the Black Mountains, and Roan Mountain, 6720 feet, Grandfather Mountain, 5788 feet, and Grandmother Mountain, 2500 feet high.

The coast is lined by a chain of low islands or sand reefs, which lie between the mainland and the ocean, enclosing a series of sounds or lagoons, which are very shallow and difficult of navigation. *Albemarle Sound*, one of the most important of these, lies in the extreme northeastern part of the State, immediately south of the Dismal Swamp. It extends inland from the ocean about 60 miles, and is from 4 to 15 miles wide. Just northeast of it is a smaller body of water called Currituck Sound, with which it communicates by a narrow inlet. Communication is had with Pamlico Sound in the same way. *Pamlico Sound* lies immediately south of Albemarle Sound, and is separated from it by a swampy neck of land, which comprises the counties of Hyde, Tyrrel, Washington, and Beaufort. The Sound is 80 miles long, and from 10 to 25 miles wide. Its average depth is about 20 feet, but many shoals occur in it. It is connected with Albemarle Sound at its northeastern extremity by a narrow inlet, in which, halfway between the two sounds, lies Roanoke Island, famous as

having been the site of the first English colony in America, and the scene of a fierce and bloody battle during the late war.

The Roanoke and Chowan rivers are the principal streams flowing into Albemarle Sound, and the Tar and Neuse rivers the principal streams flowing into Pamlico Sound. *The Roanoke River* rises in two branches in Virginia, which unite at Clarksville, in Mecklenburg county, in that State. Its general course is east-southeast, as far as the northwest end of Halifax county (N. C.), where it enters North Carolina, and flows southeast to Albemarle Sound. It meets tidewater at Weldon in Halifax county, 150 miles from its mouth, but above that place is frequently broken by rapids. The length of the main stream is 250 miles. One of its branches, the Staunton River, is about 200 miles long, and is regarded by some writers as the true Roanoke. This would make the length of the river about 450 miles. *The Tar River*, the lower part of which is sometimes called the *Pamlico River*, rises near the western border of Granville county, and flows southeast into Pamlico Sound. It is navigable for small vessels to Tarborough, in Edgecombe county. *The Neuse River* rises in Person county, the central northern county of the State, and flows southeast into Pamlico Sound. It is about 300 miles long, and is the second river in size in the State. It is navigable to Waynesborough, 100 miles from its mouth, but light draught boats have ascended it 100 miles farther. Its lower part forms a broad estuary several miles wide, and about 25 miles long, through which it empties its waters. Extensive forests of pitch and pine lie along its upper waters, or more properly above Kinston. Goldsborough, Smithfield, Kinston, and Newberne are its principal towns. *The Cape Fear River*, the principal stream in the State, is formed by the confluence, in Chatham county, of the Haw and Deep rivers. It flows thence, in a southeasterly direction, through the centre of the State, into the Atlantic Ocean. At its mouth it is divided into two channels by Smith's Island. It is the only river of the State flowing directly into the ocean, and is navigable to Fayetteville, 120 miles. By means of canals, dams, etc., boats are enabled now to reach the coal mines of Chatham county. It is a little over 300 miles long. Wilmington, the principal city of the State, Fayetteville, and Elizabethtown are situated on its banks. Cape Fear, the most southern point of the State, is formed by the lower end of Smith's Island. The mouth of the river is defended by Fort Fisher, which was bombarded and taken from the Confederates by the naval and land forces of the Union during the late war. The *Yad-*



SEA COAST OF NORTH CAROLINA.

kin (called the Great Pedee in South Carolina) and *Catawba* (Wateree in South Carolina), and several of the principal rivers of South Carolina rise in and flow for some distance through this State. The waters of North Carolina abound in fish. The fisheries of Pamlico and Albemarle Sounds are amongst the most valuable in the world. There are several inlets breaking through the sand ridge lying along the coast, and several fine harbors within the limits of the State. The most prominent points of this ridge are known (commencing on the north) as Cape Hatteras, Cape Lookout, and Cape Fear.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, CLIMATE, MINERALS, MANUFACTURES, etc.

From a communication from the Governor of North Carolina to the United States Commissioner of Emigration, we take the following description, which fairly represents the present condition of the State:

"The eastern section is mostly covered with pines, the middle and western with vast forests of oaks (of many species) interspersed with the poplar, hickory, walnut, maple, etc. Seven large rivers, with their numerous tributaries, traverse the State, furnishing unlimited

water-power as they flow down from the mountains through the middle section; and as they move with a moderate current across the champaign country, on the east, into the chain of sounds which skirt the coast, they furnish with these an aggregate of 900 miles of inland navigation, which might be doubled by carrying westward the system of slack-water improvements already commenced. With these navigable waters is interlaced the railroad system of the State, amounting to 998 miles completed, and 400 more in progress, which, with 350 miles of plank-roads and turnpikes, brings the sea-coast into ready communication with every part of the State.

"THE SOIL is very various; alluvial and peaty accumulations abound near the coast and along the rivers, while in the middle and western regions the soil is mainly of granitic origin, and represents every grade of sandy or clayey loam of various fertility.

"THE CLIMATE has also a wide range, being tempered on the seaboard to something like the mildness of that of the Gulf States, while in the mountain region it approaches the rigor of New York. In the middle section, which constitutes the larger part of the State, and represents the average climate, the mean annual temperature is 60 degrees (Fahrenheit)—the mean summer temperature 75 degrees; mean winter, 43 degrees; extreme summer (diurnal), 89 degrees; average absolute maximum, 99 degrees; extreme winter (diurnal), 20 degrees; average absolute minimum, 12 degrees. The annual fall of rain is 45 inches. The number of cloudy days in the year is 130; rainy days, 60.

"THE VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS are numerous. The most important are wheat, corn, oats, rye, potatoes, sweet potatoes, peas, rice, cotton, tobacco, turpentine, grapes, and fruits. Wheat and corn are produced with facility and abundance in all parts; rye, oats, and potatoes flourish in the middle and western regions; rice, sweet potatoes and peas in the eastern; tobacco in the middle; cotton in the southern counties of the middle, and in the eastern section; turpentine and pine lumber are peculiar to the east. The fruits most extensively and largely cultivated are the apple, peach, pear, and cherry, represented by numerous varieties. No part of the continent is better adapted to these than the middle and western regions. The principal grasses are the orchard, herd's, timothy, and blue, to which must be added clover and lucerne. All these flourish in the middle and western regions, and some of them grow wild; hence, stock-raising is easy and profitable. The stock chiefly raised are horses, mules, cows,

sheep, and hogs. The grapes usually cultivated, besides foreign varieties, are the Scuppernong, Catawba, Lincoln, and Isabella, all natives of the State, the first three being excellent wine grapes. The Scuppernong is peculiar to the eastern section. The following abstract from the United States Census Report, will best show the productions and capabilities of the State:—

Live stock,	\$22,000,000			
Wheat,	23,000 bushels annual product.			
Corn,	20,000,000	"	"	"
Oats,	3,225,000	"	"	"
Rye,	4,000	"	"	"
Peas,	1,000,000	"	"	"
Potatoes,	740,000	"	"	"
Sweet potatoes,	3,000,000	"	"	"
Cotton,	53,000,000 pounds per annum.			
Tobacco,	12,000,000	"	"	"
Rice,	2,100,000	"	"	"
Wool,	800,000	"	"	"
Honey,	1,500,000	"	"	"
Turpentine,	1,000,000 barrels	"	"	"

"THE MANUFACTURES are chiefly cotton, wool, spirits of turpentine, lumber, iron, and paper.

"The amount invested in the manufacture of cotton is \$2,250,000; lumber, \$1,000,000; turpentine, \$2,000,000; iron, \$500,000; wool, \$350,000.

"FISHERIES abound in the sounds and rivers of the eastern counties. The species of fish mostly taken are the herring, shad, blue-fish, mullet, and rock. The number of barrels annually packed for market is about 100,000 on the waters of Albemarle Sound. Considerable quantities are packed at other points.

"MINERALS.—The most important of these are coal, iron, gold, copper, silver, lead, plumbago, limestone, marble, agolmatolite, soapstone, manganese, whetstones, grindstones, roofing-slates, porcelain clay, and fire-clay. The coal is bituminous, and exists in two beds, situated respectively one hundred and two hundred miles from the coast, on Cape Fear River and on Dan River. It is abundant, accessible, and of good quality. Iron ore of excellent quality abounds in all parts of the State; the principal seats of its manufacture being on the Cape Fear, Catawba, and Yadkin rivers. Gold is found in almost all parts of the State, especially in the middle region; the annual product for many years has been \$250,000. Copper mines abound in the middle, northern, and western counties. Plumbago is

found in great abundance near the capital, and again in the western region; marble in the middle and western; and marl everywhere in the eastern section. A chain of silver and lead mines (containing gold also) traverses the central portion of the State."

COMMERCE.

The exports of North Carolina are principally pitch, tar, turpentine, cotton, and rice. In 1860, the commerce of the State was as follows: Exports \$760,094; imports \$365,931. A vigorous trade with the Northern States has sprung up since the war.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In 1872 there were 1190 miles of completed railroad in North Carolina, constructed at a cost of about \$30,000,000. Two main lines cross the State, one from Weldon to Wilmington, the other from Danville, Virginia, to Charlotte. There is still another important road from Greensboro in Guilford county, to Morehead City, on the Atlantic coast. This road crosses the Wilmington and Weldon road at Goldsborough. There is direct communication between the important towns of this State, by the lines above mentioned and their branches, and also with all parts of the Union. The roads of North Carolina were almost destroyed during the war, and are slowly recovering from their losses.

EDUCATION.

The University of North Carolina is located at Chapel Hill, in Orange county. It was founded in 1789, and with "its lands, emoluments, and franchises, is under the control of the State, and is to be held to an inseparable connection with the Free Public School System of the State. The benefits of the University as far as practicable are to be extended to the youth of the State, free of expense for tuition. Previous to the late war, this institution was in a very flourishing condition, but its resources have been crippled by the failure of the State Bank, in which \$200,000 of its endowment was invested. The Board of Education elect for the University one Trustee for each county in the State, whose term of office is eight years. One-fourth of the Trustees are chosen every second year. The Board of Education and the President of the University are *ex-officio* members of the Board of Trustees, and with three other Trustees to be appointed by the Board, constitute the Executive Committee of the Trustees of the University of North Carolina. The Governor is *ex-officio* President

of the Board of Trustees, and Chairman of the Executive Committee of the University.

"Before the war, public schools were maintained in the State, by means of the income derived from the Literary Fund, which amounted to \$2,500,000 in 1860. About half of this fund was swept away by the war; and the system of district schools, which had brought a rudimentary education within the reach of all, free of cost, was prostrated, but measures have been taken to revive it.

"The Constitution provides for a general and uniform system of Free Public Schools. The Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Auditor, Superintendent of Public Works, Superintendent of Public Instruction, and Attorney-General constitute a State Board of Education, which succeeds to all the powers and trusts of the President and Directors of the Literary Fund of North Carolina, and has full power to legislate and make all needful rules and regulations in relation to Free Public Schools, and the Educational Fund. The Superintendent of Public Instruction has the chief oversight of the schools. Each county is divided into school districts, in each of which one or more public schools must be maintained at least four months in the year. The schools of each county are under the supervision and control of county commissioners elected biennially." *

In 1870 there were about 1250 schools in the State, attended by 32,650 white, and 12,350 colored children. In 1860 there were 16 colleges in the State.

In the same year there were in North Carolina 1746 libraries, containing 3,687,363 volumes. The newspapers and periodicals of the State were 64 in number, with an aggregate circulation of 6,684,950 copies.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

This State has no Penitentiary, but the Constitution of 1868 requires that one shall be erected as speedily as possible, and also authorizes the establishment of Houses of Refuge and Workhouses, as they may become necessary.

The State Insane Asylum, at Raleigh, is an excellent institution. It was in a very prosperous condition before the war, but during hostilities it was greatly impoverished, and was greatly inconvenienced by the lack of funds and supplies. It is now in operation under more favorable auspices, and has about 180 inmates.

* American Year Book, vol. i. p. 424.

The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb and Blind, at Raleigh, was closed for a while during the war, but was reopened in January, 1866. Binding books, and making shoes and brooms, constitute the principal work of its pupils. In 1867 it had 93 inmates, 26 of which were blind.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, the value of church property in the State was \$2,487,877, and the number of churches, 2497.

FINANCES.

In January, 1874, the State debt amounted to \$38,948,828. The annual expenses of the State, including the interest, at six per cent. on the debt, are about \$3,000,000, and are provided for by taxation.

In 1868 there were 6 National Banks in the State, with a capital of \$653,300.

GOVERNMENT.

The present Constitution of North Carolina was adopted by the people in April, 1868. The present State officers were elected at the same time, and hold office for four years from the 1st of January, 1869. Every male citizen, 21 years old, who has resided in the State one year, and in the county six months, has the right to vote at the elections, but no person may vote without being registered.

The Government of the State is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Auditor, Attorney-General, and a Legislature, consisting of a Senate (of 50 members) and House of Representatives (of 120 members), all chosen by the people. The Executive officers are chosen every fourth year, and members of the Legislature every two years. The Governor is advised in his duties by a Council of State, of which the Secretary of State, Treasurer, Auditor, and the Superintendents of Public Works and of Public Instruction, are *ex-officio* members. A separate journal of the proceedings of this Council is kept, which must be submitted to the Legislature for examination whenever called for.

The courts of the State are the Supreme Court, Superior Court, and one County Court for each county, the judges of which are elected by the people. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and four Associate Justices.

For purposes of government, North Carolina is divided into 86 counties. Raleigh, in Wake county, is the capital of the State.

HISTORY.

The first attempt of the English to settle their possessions in America, was made at Roanoke Island, in this State, in 1585. The colonists got into trouble with the Indians, and the settlement was abandoned the following year. In 1630, an immense tract of land, south of the Chesapeake, was granted to Sir Robert Heath, and called Carolina. As he did not colonize it, however, the grant was afterwards declared forfeit. In 1663, the territory was granted by Charles II. of England to a company of eight of the most distinguished noblemen of England. This grant embraced the territory lying between latitudes 29° and $36^{\circ} 30'$ north, and the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. The grantees were given full powers over their domain. The northern part of this province was, about this time, settled by dissenters from Virginia. It was called Albemarle, and an absurd Constitution for its government was drawn up for the proprietors by John Locke. It was for about twenty-five years, nominally, the supreme law of the province, but was at length abandoned, because of the impossibility of carrying out its provisions. The colonists, however, showed a rare wisdom in the establishment of their government. They carefully guarded the rights of property and of person, and granted entire freedom in matters of religion. The colony grew and prospered slowly, and in 1674 contained only 4000 inhabitants. Its early history, however, was marked by continuous strife between the authorities and the inhabitants. In 1695, John Archdale, a Quaker, was appointed Governor. By a series of wise measures, he succeeded in restoring order and quiet, and in establishing churches and providing for their support. During his administration tar and turpentine were first exported. In 1711, by the aid of troops from Virginia, a rebellion which had been incited by Thomas Cary, who wished to retain his place as Governor, was suppressed. A little later, the Tuscarora Indians commenced a merciless war upon the settlers. They were conquered, with the aid of the neighboring colonies, in 1713, and compelled to move northward. In 1729, the king purchased the privileges of the proprietors, and Carolina became a royal province, and was divided into two colonies, called North and South Carolina. Slavery was introduced into the colony at an early day, and continued to form the basis of its agricultural industry until 1865. In 1765, the population was greatly increased by the arrival of a band of Presbyterians from the north of Ireland, who settled in the northwestern

part of the State. They were followed by a colony of Moravians, who settled between the Yadkin and Dan rivers, and a colony of Highlanders, who settled on the upper Cape Fear, near the present town of Fayetteville.

The colony actively supported the measures of resistance to the aggressions of the crown, and was represented in the first Continental Congress, which met in 1774. The Governor endeavored to put a stop to the "seditious" proceedings of the patriots, but without effect. A hearty coöperation was given to the cause of the United Colonies, and in May, 1775, a convention of the people of Mecklenburg county formally threw off their allegiance to Great Britain, and proclaimed the independence of North Carolina. This declaration was not generally sustained in the province, however. In July, 1775, the Governor took refuge on board a man of war in Cape Fear River, from which he issued his orders to his partisans to join him on the coast. They made several efforts to do so, being very numerous in the State. In the summer of 1775, a party of 1500 loyalists, under command of McDonald and McLeod, on their way to the coast, were met by a force of patriots, under Caswell and Moore, and routed, with a loss of 850 prisoners, including McDonald. McLeod was killed. The assembly took vigorous measures to maintain the cause of the colonies, and between August 20th, 1775, and July, 1776, ordered nine regiments to be raised for service in the American army. In April, 1776, the delegates of the colony, in the Continental Congress, were ordered to unite with the delegates of the other colonies in a declaration of independence of the British crown. In December, 1776, a State Constitution was adopted.

North Carolina was partly exempt from the horrors of the war until 1780. The successes of the British forces in Georgia encouraged a strong party of tories to rise in arms, and 700 of them set out to join the British at Augusta, Georgia. They were met and routed on their march by Pickens' partisan band of South Carolina. Seventy of them were tried for and convicted of treason, and five of them were hanged. Two parties of tories rose in 1780. One succeeded in reaching the British outposts, but the other was dispersed. On the 9th of October, 1780, the strongest body of tories, which had yet taken arms for the king, was defeated at King's Mountain, by a force of militia under Shelby and Sevier. They lost 150 killed, including their leader, General Fergusson, and a large number wounded. The rest, 800 in number, surrendered, and 10 of their leaders were hanged on the field.

The battle of Guilford Court House, (March 15th, 1781,) in which General Greene was defeated, was fought in this State. North Carolina furnished her full quota of men during the war, and fairly won the privileges which the successful issue of the struggle brought the States.

In 1784, the State ceded to the United States the territory now embraced in the State of Tennessee. The Constitution of the United States did not prove acceptable to North Carolina, and was rejected by the Convention in 1788, but was finally ratified in 1789.

The sympathies of the people of North Carolina were with the South in the late war, and on the 20th of May, 1861, an ordinance of secession was adopted, and the State withdrew from the Union and joined the Southern Confederacy. Large numbers of troops were contributed to the Confederate army, and the forts along the coast were occupied. Fort Hatteras, at Hatteras Inlet, was taken by the Federal fleet in 1861, and Fort Fisher and the other defences of the Cape Fear, by the army and navy in 1865. The fall of Fort Fisher opened the way to Wilmington, which was at once occupied by the Union army. The State was held by the various columns of Sherman's army, in 1865, which advanced from Cheraw, South Carolina, through Fayetteville, and from Wilmington, and Morehead City, and concentrated at Goldsborough, after which they advanced on Raleigh. The Confederates made several efforts to check this advance, but were too weak to accomplish anything. The battles of Averasboro and Bentonville were fought by the armies of Sherman and Johnston, and the latter general surrendered his forces to the former, near Raleigh, and closed the war in the State. During the war, several severe struggles occurred on the coast, the principal of which were the capture of Roanoke Island by the Union forces, and of Plymouth by the Confederates.

In 1865 a Provisional Governor was appointed by the President, and in 1867 the State became a part of the "Second Military District," commanded by Major-General Daniel E. Sickles. A State Convention was held in 1868, which adopted the present Constitution. This instrument was ratified by the people at the polls in April, and on the 25th of June, 1868, Congress formally readmitted the State into the Union.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

The principal cities and towns are, Newberne, Fayetteville, Salisbury, Charlotte, Henderson, Elizabeth City, Beaufort, Warrenton, Greensboro, Kinston, and Tarboro.



CAPITOL AT RALEIGH.

RALEIGH,

The capital of the State, is situated in Wake county, 4 miles west of the Neuse River, 286 miles southwest of Washington, latitude $35^{\circ} 47' N.$, longitude $78^{\circ} 48' W.$ It is very near the centre of the State, and lies in the midst of a beautiful country. The site of the city is elevated, and is noted for its healthfulness. The city is well built as a rule, the central portion is occupied by a handsome park, covering 10 acres, and known as Union Square. From this park four streets, each 100 feet in width, radiate in as many directions; these streets divide the city into four parts, each of which is a square of four acres. In Union Square stands the *State House*, a magnificent edifice, and one of the largest and most imposing of all the State Capitols. It is built of granite in imitation of the Parthenon, is surrounded with columns of the same material, and is crowned with a grand dome. It is 166 feet long by 90 feet wide. Raleigh also contains the Governor's residence, and the other State buildings, the *State Lunatic Asylum*, and the *North Carolina Institution for the Deaf and Dumb*, a Court-house, a jail, 5 churches, and about 9 news-

paper offices. It has direct railway communication with all parts of the State and the Union.

Raleigh was made the capital of North Carolina in 1788. It is named after Sir Walter Raleigh. In 1870 the population was 7790.

WILMINGTON,

The largest city in the State, is situated in New Hanover county, on the east bank of the Cape Fear River, just below the entrance of the northeast branch of the Cape Fear into the main stream. It is 34 miles from the sea, 135 miles southeast of Raleigh, and 416 miles southwest of Washington City. The city is located in a plain extending back from the river, and those of the streets that are not paved are very sandy. As a general rule the city is well built. It contains several fine public buildings, a number of churches, several public and private schools, a theatre, and about 4 newspaper offices. It is lighted with gas, and has an efficient police force. It is the handsomest city in the State, and is regarded as a pleasant place of residence.

Wilmington is the chief commercial city of North Carolina. It is connected with all parts of the Union by railway. Lines of steamers navigate the Cape Fear to Fayetteville, and steamships ply regularly between this port and the principal cities of the Northern and Southern States. Large quantities of rice, cotton, turpentine, rosin, tar, pitch, lumber, and naval stores are exported annually from Wilmington. In 1861, the year before the civil war, the tonnage of the district was 14,511 tons registered, and 10,394 licensed and enrolled. The war struck a severe blow at the commerce of the city, but it is now rapidly regaining its former proportions. The city contains a number of steam saw-mills, planing and rice-mills, machine shops, and distilleries. Wilmington is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870 the population was 13,446.

Wilmington was originally called Newton, and was given its present name in honor of an English nobleman of that name, who had secured Governor Johnston the government of the colony. It was settled before the Revolution, and during the war was merely an unimportant village. It was occupied by the British in January, 1781, and held by them until the close of the war. During the civil war it was strongly fortified by the Confederates, and was one of the principal ports from which they kept up their communications with Europe. It was the centre of a large blockade trade. It was blockaded by the

United States fleet during the war, but the arrival and departure of vessels from foreign ports continued with great regularity, until the capture of Fort Fisher, and the defences at the mouth of the Cape Fear, by a combined attack of the land and naval forces of the United States on the 15th of February, 1865. On the 22d of the same month, Wilmington was occupied by the United States army, and remained in their possession until the close of the war.

NEWBERNE,

A flourishing town in Craven county, is one of the principal ports of the State. It is situated at the junction of the Neuse and Trent rivers, 50 miles from Pamlico Sound, and 120 miles southeast of Raleigh. It is a fine old town, substantially built, and attractive in appearance, and is connected with all parts of the State by railway. It is a place of considerable trade. The Neuse is a mile wide at this point, and is navigable for steamers for about 8 months in the year. The principal exports are grain, lumber, turpentine, tar, and naval stores. Newberne contains the county buildings, several churches, schools, and 2 newspaper offices. In 1870 the population was 5849.

Newberne is one of the oldest towns in the State, and was at one time the capital of North Carolina. In March, 1861, it was attacked and captured by the United States forces, under General Burnside, after a sharp fight of four hours.

CHARLOTTE,

In Mecklenburg county, is one of the most important towns in the State. It is situated on Sugar Creek, 158 miles west-southwest of Raleigh. It is pleasantly located in a beautiful country, and lies in the midst of the gold region of the State. In 1838, a branch Mint was established here by the United States, for the purpose of coining the gold mined in this section. The war put an end to its operations, and since then it has not been revived. Charlotte contains several churches and schools, 2 newspaper offices, and the county buildings. It is one of the principal railroad centres of the State, and possesses a considerable trade. In 1870 the population was 4473.

Charlotte was settled before the Revolution. The famous Mecklenburg Convention met here in 1775, and adopted its Declaration of Independence. The British troops occupied the town in 1780, and it was here that General Greene relieved Gates of the command of the American army.

MISCELLANIES.

THE FIRST ENGLISH COLONY IN AMERICA.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert is entitled to the honor of planting the first English colony in America. His first expedition, on which he had expended much of his private fortune, failed—from what cause is uncertain.

The second expedition, undertaken four years afterwards, was still more unfortunate; for it lost to the world the gallant and accomplished projector of the expedition. Five vessels sailed from Plymouth on Tuesday, the 11th of June, 1583. Two days afterward, the vice-admiral complained of sickness aboard, and returned with the finest ship in the fleet to Plymouth. The admiral, nevertheless, continued his course with his little squadron, and took possession, with the feudal ceremony, of Newfoundland, to be held by him as a fief of the crown of England, in accordance with the terms of his charter.

The looseness of morals displayed by the mariners of that day is truly disgusting, and increases our wonder at the daring of men who could venture so far from home, in such frail barks, with almost a certainty of encountering on the great highway, in their fellow-men, greater perils than were presented by all the terrors of the deep. Robbery by sea was too common, and often committed in violation of the most sacred obligations, even upon persons engaged in the very act of relieving the distress of the depredators. Gilbert seems to have been cursed with a remarkably riotous and insubordinate company. The sick and disaffected were left at Newfoundland, to be sent home with the Swallow, and the admiral proceeded with his three remaining barks.

On Tuesday, the 20th of August, they sailed from the harbor of St. John's, and on the 29th, in about latitude 44 degrees, the largest remaining vessel, by the carelessness of the crew, struck, and went to pieces, and the other barks were forced by a high sea and a lee shore to struggle for their own preservation, which they accomplished with difficulty—alleging, at the same time, that they could see none of the crew of the wreck floating upon timbers, but all seemed to have gone down when the ship broke up. A few, however, escaped to Newfoundland in the ship's pinnace, as was afterwards discovered.

This calamity, followed by continual storms, in an unknown and shoaly sea, enhanced by an extreme scantiness of provisions, and want of clothes and comforts in the two little barks which yet remained, induced the admiral, at the earnest solicitation of his men, to return homeward. Sir Humphrey Gilbert was vehemently persuaded by the crew of the *Golden Hind* to remain with them during the voyage; but, as some malicious taunts had been thrown out by some evil-disposed person, accusing him of being afraid of the sea, he chose to continue to sail in his little pinnace, the *Squirrel*, which was burdened beyond her strength.

After the vessels had left the Azores to the south, and reached the latitude of England, they encountered violent and continued storms. On Monday, the 9th of September, the *Squirrel* was nearly cast away, but recovered, and the admiral was seen sitting abaft with a book in his hand, and heard to cry out to those in the *Hind*, "We are as near to heaven by sea as by land." That same night, at 12 o'clock, the *Squirrel* being in advance, her light suddenly disappeared, and her hardy crew, with their gallant commander, sleep forever in the deep. The *Hind* reached Falmouth in safety, but after encountering imminent peril to the last moment.

The daring spirit of the mariners of that day is amazing. Sir Walter Raleigh, the step-brother of Sir Humphrey Gilbert, so far from being intimidated by the melancholy fate of his relative, or disheartened by the unprofitable and disastrous termination of most of the voyages to America, undertook in the very next year an expedition to the coast of the present United States. He easily obtained one of the usual unlimited patents from Elizabeth, and, leaving the cold north, with its barren snows, its storms, icebergs, and certain evils, together with its imaginary wealth, he spread his sails for the sweet south, where he was sure to find a fertile soil and a delightful climate, though his ship's company might not all be enriched by the discovery of gold.

On the 2d of July they found shoal water, "and smelt so sweet and strong a smell, as if they had been in the midst of some delicate garden abounding with all kinds of odoriferous flowers."

On the 13th, they entered Ocracock Inlet, on the coast of the present State of North Carolina, and landed on Wocoken Island. They commenced an intercourse with the natives, who proved to be bold, confiding, intelligent, and honorable to their friends, but treacherous, revengeful, and cruel towards their enemies.

The English explored a little the surrounding islands and bays, and returned home in September, carrying with them two natives, Manteo and Wanchese. The glowing description given by the adventurers, on their return, of the beauty of the country, the fertility of the soil, and pleasantness of the climate, delighted the queen, and induced her to name the country of which she had taken possession, Virginia, in commemoration of her unmarried life.

It might be expected that so favorable an account would soon lead to a new expedition. Accordingly, another was prepared for the succeeding year, consisting of seven vessels. Ralph Lane was appointed by Raleigh, Governor of the colony, which consisted of 108 persons. Sir Richard Grenville took command of the fleet, and several learned and accomplished men attended the expedition, one of whom has transmitted to posterity many interesting particulars of the nature of the country, and the habits, manners, and government of its inhabitants.

The English soon began to maltreat the harmless, unpretending, and simple natives, and they, on the other hand, to grow jealous of the power of the overbearing strangers. They soon learned the inordinate passion of the newcomers for gold, and, taking advantage of their credulity, inflicted upon them the labor of many fruitless expeditions in search of pretended mines—hoping, at the same time, by these divisions, to weaken the power of the little colony to such a degree that they might be able to destroy it in detachment; but the English were too cautious for this, and went too short a distance, and in force too powerful for the Indians to encounter with the great disparity of arms. The greatest advantage which accrued from these expeditions, and indeed from the whole attempt at a settlement, was the discovery of Chesapeake Bay.

The little colony, finding no gold, and receiving no supplies from England, had begun to despond, when most unexpectedly Sir Francis Drake arrived, on his return from his expedition against the Spaniards in South America, with a fleet of 23 ships. The sagacity of Drake perceived in a moment what was necessary for the colony, and his generosity supplied them with provisions, vessels, and other things necessary to maintain their position, extend their researches, and, if necessary, to return to England; but the accomplishment of his purpose was defeated by a violent storm which suddenly arose, and nearly wrecked his whole fleet, driving the vessel of provisions intended for the colony to sea, and

destroying the vessels which had been set apart to be left for their use. He would have supplied others; but the colony, with their Governor at their head, earnestly requesting permission to return to England, he complied with their wishes. Thus terminated the first English settlement in America.

This little colony, during its sojourn with the Indians, had acquired something of their fondness for the use of tobacco, and learned to regard it with almost the same superstitious reverence, as a powerful medicinal agent. Upon their return, they introduced the use of this plant into England; and a weed at first disgusting and nauseating to all who use it, has become gradually the favorite luxury (and indeed with many a necessary of life) of all classes of society, and of both the young and the old throughout the world—and this, after experience has proved that in most cases it is an injury rather than a benefit to the health.

THE GREATEST AMERICAN.

The largest man on record was Miles Darden, a native of North Carolina, who was born in 1798, and who died in Tennessee in 1857. He was 7 feet and 6 inches high, and in 1845 weighed 872 pounds. At his death he weighed a little over 1000 pounds. In 1839, his coat was buttoned around three men, each of them weighing over 200 pounds, who walked together in it across the Square at Lexington. In 1850, it required $13\frac{1}{2}$ yards of cloth, 1 yard wide, to make him a coat. Until 1853 he was active and lively, and able to bear labor; but from that time was compelled to stay at home, or be hauled about in a two-horse wagon. His coffin was 8 feet long, 35 inches deep, 32 inches across the breast, 18 inches across the head, and 14 inches across the feet. It required 24 yards of black velvet to cover the sides and lid of the coffin. Miles Darden was twice married, and his children are very large, though it is probable that none of them will ever attain the gigantic weight and size of their father.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Area,	34,000 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	703,708
(Whites, 291,388; Negroes, 412,320)	
Population in 1870,	705,616

THE State of South Carolina, one of the 13 original States of the Union, lies between 32° and $35^{\circ} 10'$ N. latitude, and between $78^{\circ} 35'$ and $83^{\circ} 30'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north and northeast by North Carolina, on the southeast by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by Georgia. The State is almost triangular in shape. The Savannah River forms the western boundary, and separates it from Georgia; and the coast line is about 200 miles long.

TOPOGRAPHY.

Along the coast, and for about 100 miles inland, the surface is low and sandy. Large swamps occupy the lower part of the State, and in this district rice is extensively cultivated. A chain of low islands of great fertility and beauty extends along the coast, separated from the mainland by a series of shallow lagoons, through which navigation is maintained between Charleston and Florida, safe from the violence and dangers of the sea. These islands extend down the Georgia and Florida coast, and produce the famous "Sea Island Cotton." About 100 miles inland, a large sandy tract occurs, and is known as the "Midland country." Beyond this is the "Ridge," a sudden elevation, which is overtopped in the northwest by the Blue Ridge Mountains, which cross this part of the State, and attain their greatest height in Table Mountain, 4000 feet above the sea.

"From the mouth of the Great Pedee River to that of the Savannah, the coast of South Carolina is lined with a series of bays, sounds,

and lagoons, which, though mostly shallow, have sufficient depth to allow of an extensive coasting navigation. Commencing at the Great Pedee, and proceeding south, we have Winyaw Bay, at the mouth of that river; then, in order, Bull's Bay, Charleston Harbor, St. Helena Sound, and Port Royal Entrance, with a number of smaller inlets. The harbor of Beaufort is much the best of these, admitting vessels drawing 11 feet water; Charleston Harbor is obstructed by a dangerous bar; St. Helena Sound is the most capacious of these inlets, but is beset with shoals. Georgetown, at the head of Winyaw Bay, can only be reached by vessels of small draught; and Stono Inlet, south of Charleston, has but 10 feet water on the bar. The Santee River, with its main affluents, the Congaree and Wateree, passes almost directly through the middle of the State. It is about 100 miles from the junction of the Congaree and Wateree to the mouth of the Santee, and about 300 miles from their confluence to their sources in North Carolina. The Great Pedee enters the State from North Carolina (where it bears the name of Yadkin), and courses through the northeast part of South Carolina, about 150 miles, into Winyaw Bay; the Saluda and Broad rivers drain the northwest of the State, and unite to form the Congaree; the Broad River rises in the west of North Carolina; the Edisto and Combahee drain the southwest of the State, and flow into the Atlantic after courses of 150 to 200 miles; Lynch's Creek is a tributary from the west, and Wacamaw and Little Pedee from the east of the Great Pedee; all have their sources in North Carolina. The larger streams run in a southeast direction, and furnish an inland navigation of about 2400 miles, apart from the creeks and inlets of the sea. The Savannah River can be navigated by steamboats to Hamburg, and for smaller boats still higher. The Wacamaw may be ascended 12 miles, the Great Pedee 200 miles, the Congaree and the Wateree about the same distances by steamboats. All these rivers are boatable above the distances mentioned, for keel-boats. Greenville is the only district in the State without the advantage of navigation. Water-courses abound in all the districts favorable for mill-sites." *

MINERALS.

The Agricultural Bureau of the United States makes the following statement of the mineral resources of the State in 1868:

"Iron of superior quality, in great abundance, is found in Spartan-

* Lippincott's Gazetteer, p. 1814.

burg, but only used for plantation purposes; ore is reported in Abbeville. Gold is found in Spartanburg, in Pickens (where a company is successfully at work, near Wallhalla), in Abbeville (where 'Horn's gold mine,' discovered in 1834, has already yielded \$1,000,000, and is still worked with profit); and in York some mines have lately been sold to Northern capitalists, including some California miners. Lead, also, is found in Spartanburg, copper and silver in Pickens, very pure ochre in Abbeville, and immense beds of kaolin and superior buhrstone. Marl in Barnwell contains a large percentage of lime. This district has had several manufactories of cotton, paper, etc., in profitable operation, and some are yet running successfully."

CLIMATE.

The climate of South Carolina corresponds with that of the south of France, and of Italy. The winter is mild and short, the spring is pleasant, and the heats of the summer are tempered by the cool sea-breezes which sweep over the State.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The soil of the State is divided into six varieties; 1. The Tide Swamp, which is devoted exclusively to the culture of rice. 2. The Inland Swamp, in which grow rice, cotton, corn, and peas. 3. The Salt Marsh, in which grows the long cotton. 4. The oak and pine, in which grow long cotton, corn, potatoes, etc. 5. The oak and hickory, growing short cotton and corn. 6. The Pine Barrens, devoted to fruits, corn, etc.

A publication, recently issued by the State authorities, gives the following account of the productions of South Carolina:

"The usual productions of this State are cotton, the long and short staple, rice, both swamp and upland, tobacco, indigo, sugar, wheat, rye, corn, oats, millet, barley, buckwheat, peas, beans, sorghum, broom-corn, sunflower, guinea corn, sweet potatoes, and Irish potatoes. Hemp, flax, and hops grow luxuriantly. Of fruits, our orchards will show apples, pears, quinces, plums, peaches, apricots, nectarines, cherries, oranges, lemons, olives, figs, pomegranates, and the American date, the persimmons, of many kinds. Of berries, we have the mulberry, raspberry, strawberry, blackberry, huckleberry, sparkleberry, and elderberry. Of nuts, we have the walnut, pecan nut, chestnut, hickory, hazel-nut, and chincapin. The grape grows luxuriantly in



RICE FIELDS, SOUTH CAROLINA.

every portion of the State. In our woods and swamps enormous vines are found, extending to the topmost branches of the tallest forest-trees. Around Aiken, about 500 acres are now planted in grapes, and the quantity increases annually. The vines are healthy and vigorous. The silkworm thrives well with us, and the *Morus multicaulis* flourishes without any more care or attention than any of our forest-trees, and the growth is so rapid that the leaves can be used the second year after planting. The tea-plant is successfully cultivated. Of garden products, we have turnips, carrots, parsnips, artichokes, mustard, benne, rhubarb, arrow-root, water-melons, musk-melons, cucumbers, cabbages, kale, salads, peppers, squashes, tomatoes, pumpkins, onions, leeks, okra, cauliflower, beans, peas, radishes, celery, etc., etc.—in short, almost whatever can be raised in any garden in the world. Of flowers, we have in our gardens whatever the earth will yield in beauty and fragrance. The rose is a hedge-plant, the japonica blossoms in the open air throughout the winter, the jasmine perfumes our thickets, and the violet borders our roads.”

The principal products of the State are about as follows:

Pounds of rice,	32,304,825
Bales of cotton,	224,500
Bushels of wheat,	783,610

Bushels of corn,	7,614,207
“ peas and beans,	460,378
“ sweet potatoes,	1,342,165
Pounds of butter,	1,461,980

The agriculture of South Carolina was much damaged by the war. Many of the inland plantations, and nearly all along the coast were ruined, and the abolition of slavery produced serious losses by greatly demoralizing the only class of laborers available. The State is slowly recovering from its misfortunes. It has, however, a serious difficulty to contend against—the majority of its inhabitants are negroes. Whatever we may hope for them in the future, the blacks are now in a wretched condition of ignorance and degradation, and it will require all the energy and genius of the Palmetto State to rise to the position to which it is naturally entitled.

COMMERCE.

The foreign trade of South Carolina was very large previous to the war, owing to her heavy exports of cotton and rice, much of which was also shipped to the Northern States. The principal port is Charleston. In 1860, the total exports of the State amounted to \$21,205,337, and the imports to \$1,569,570.

MANUFACTURES.

Agriculture being almost the exclusive pursuit of the people, manufactures are comparatively neglected in South Carolina, though the northwestern part of the State is admirably suited to them, having a salubrious climate, and an abundance of fine water-power. In 1870, the aggregate capital of the manufactures of this State was \$5,400,418. The annual product of manufactures and mining was \$9,858,981.

“With the raw material on the spot,” says a recent State publication, “and water-power and fuel everywhere in abundance, no better opening for the establishment of factories can anywhere be found than in South Carolina. This must be obvious to all reflecting minds. We have the cotton, the most valuable manufacturing material in the world, growing in fields on the borders of which the stream passes by, where the mill would find an effective site; we have the iron ore in abundance, and the fuel near at hand, to make our own metal and build our own machinery; we have the clay for stoneware and pottery, the fine kaolin for porcelain, and the silica for glass, in many portions of the State; we have the fine-grained and hard woods in

our forests for all the branches of cabinet-making; and we have an excellent and ever-ready market for all our produce. The port of Charleston is connected by a system of railroads with all parts of the State and the whole country, the harbor is safe and capacious, and is visited by vessels from all parts of the world. In addition, we have the port of Georgetown, and the magnificent Port Royal, situated in a rich and fertile region, enjoying a pleasant and salubrious climate, deep and capacious enough for the manœuvres of the largest war-vessels in the world."

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

The railroads of South Carolina were almost destroyed by the contending armies during the war, but are now slowly but surely recovering from their prostration. In 1872, there were 1000 miles of completed railroads in the State, constructed at a cost of \$25,208,000.

"A glance at the map," continues the publication from which we have just quoted, "will show that a railroad station is within easy reach of every corner of the State. The Charleston and Savannah Railroad connects us with all the principal Southern cities. The South Carolina Railroad runs up to Columbia, the capital of the State, and by a branch to Augusta, from thence forming a chain of connections with the Western States. The Greenville and Columbia Railroad, by its main line and several branches, reaches every western and northwestern section of the State, and by its connection with the Blue Ridge Railroad (which for the present terminates at the German town and settlement of Walhalla, in Pickens District), will in a few years unite us with Cincinnati, in Ohio. The Columbia and Charlotte Railroad traverses the northern sections of the State, and, by the Danville Railroad, terminates in Richmond, Virginia. The Northeastern Railroad connects with the Wilmington and Manchester Railroad, and is one of the lines of travel from Charleston to New York. Thus it will be seen, that this State has a complete net-work of intercommunication, whilst connecting with every main avenue of the business and travel of this continent by direct lines."

EDUCATION.

In 1870, there were 11 colleges, 158 academies and other schools, and 581 public schools in the State. The University of South Carolina, at Columbia, was an institution of high reputation, and was enjoying great prosperity in 1860. The war caused the discontinu-

ance of all the schools, many of them having their buildings burned, and since the restoration of peace the State has been too poor to do much for the cause of education.

The system of public instruction has been revised under the new Constitution, and is placed in charge of a State Superintendent, who is chosen by the people at each general election for State officers. Each county or district is in charge of one School Commissioner, chosen biennially by the people of the district. These Commissioners constitute a State Board of Education, of which the State Superintendent is *ex-officio* Chairman. The Legislature is required by the new Constitution to provide a uniform system of public schools. Attendance at these or at private schools is made compulsory upon all children between the ages of 9 and 16 years, except in case of bodily or mental infirmity. The State is also required to levy taxes for the support of these schools, and for the support of a Normal School, a State University, an Agricultural College, schools for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind, and a State Reform School. A permanent school fund is also established for this purpose.

In 1870, the number of volumes in the libraries of this State was 546,244. Many libraries were destroyed during the war.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The State is provided with a Penitentiary and Lunatic Asylum, and the Constitution makes a liberal provision for their support, and for the establishment and maintenance of such other charitable and penal institutions as may be found necessary.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, the value of church property in this State was \$3,276,982. Much was destroyed during the war, the heaviest losses occurring in Charleston and Columbia, where nearly all the church buildings were utterly demolished.

FINANCES.

On the 31st of October, 1874, the total debt of the State was \$17,017,651. The expenditures of the Treasury during the same year were \$1,718,766, and the receipts for the same period were \$1,592,075.

There were at the same time 3 National Banks, with a capital of \$685,000, doing business in the State.

GOVERNMENT.

The present Constitution of the State was adopted in 1868. Every male citizen of the United States, 21 years old, without regard to race, color, or former condition, who has resided in the State one year and in the county six months, is a voter. The disfranchised are paupers, convicts, persons of unsound mind, and persons disqualified by the Constitution of the United States.

The Government is vested in a Governor and Lieutenant-Governor, who must be 30 years old, and two years a resident of the State. They are elected by the people biennially. The other executive officers are a Secretary of State, Treasurer and Receiver-General, Auditor, and Attorney-General, elected by the people for four years. The Legislature consists of a Senate (of 31 members) and House of Representatives (of 124 members). The Senators are elected for four years, one-half retiring every two years. Representatives are chosen biennially.

"The judicial power of the State is vested in a Supreme Court; in two Circuit Courts, viz: a Court of Common Pleas, having civil jurisdiction, and a Court of General Sessions, with criminal jurisdiction only; in Probate Courts, and in justices of the peace. The General Assembly may also establish such municipal and other inferior courts as may be deemed necessary. The Supreme Court is to consist of a Chief Justice and two Associate Justices, chosen by a joint vote of the General Assembly for a term of six years. The Circuit Judges are to be chosen in the same manner, and hold office four years. A Court of Probate is to be established in each county, the judge of which shall be chosen by a vote of the people for a term of two years. Justices of the peace are elected by the people, and have jurisdiction of all cases where the amount involved does not exceed one hundred dollars."

The seat of Government is located at Columbia.

For purposes of government, the State is divided into 30 districts or counties.

HISTORY.

The State was first settled by a band of French Huguenots under Jean Ribault, who, in May, 1562, planted a colony on a beautiful island in a spacious inlet, which he named Port Royal. The sur-

rounding country he called Carolina, in honor of Charles IX., of France. He left 26 persons in this colony, and went back to Europe; but the settlers became dissatisfied, mutinied, killed their commandant, abandoned the enterprise, and sailed for France in a rude vessel which they had built. Their vessel proved a failure, and, after suffering great hardships and privations, they were rescued by an English ship, and carried to Europe. A permanent colony was planted at Port Royal by the English in 1670. The settlers removed, in 1671, to the site of old Charleston, on the west side of the Ashley River, and in 1680 again removed to the point of land between the Cooper and Ashley rivers, and founded the present city of Charleston. The province grew rapidly, and under the general name of Carolina was united with the settlements in North Carolina, under one Government, the nature of which we have already described in the last chapter. In 1729, the king bought out the proprietors, and South Carolina came into existence as a separate royal province. By this time it had been well settled by a considerable number of French Huguenots, and Swiss, Irish, and German emigrants. The colony was greatly harassed during its infancy by the savages, and united with Georgia in putting a stop to the depredations of the Spaniards, who had settled Florida and were guilty of many outrages upon their English neighbors.

The province was one of the most prominent in the measures of resistance to British aggression adopted by the colonies, and in the summer of 1775 repulsed a British fleet under Sir Peter Parker, which sought to force an entrance into Charleston Harbor. The State was the scene of many desperate and bloody encounters during the war. Charleston was taken by the British, who held the country for nearly two years, during which the partisan bands of Marion, Sumter, and Pickens maintained a constant and bloody guerilla warfare against them, and against their Tory adherents, of which the State contained large numbers. The battles of Camden, Eutaw Springs, and the Cowpens were fought in South Carolina, which State maintained its ancient reputation for bravery and patriotism throughout the whole struggle.

The original Constitution of the State was adopted in March, 1776, and the Constitution of the United States was ratified in May, 1798.

The State grew rapidly in wealth and importance after the formation of the Federal Union. Negro slavery increased rapidly. The number of slaves in 1790 was 107,094, and in 1860, 402,406, while

the white population had increased only 107 per cent. in 70 years, being 140,178 in 1790, and 291,388 in 1860. In the latter year, the free and slave negroes constituted nearly 60 per cent. of the whole population.

Being a strictly agricultural community, the State was naturally averse to the high tariff system so popular in the manufacturing States of the North, and, as we have seen elsewhere in this book, carried its opposition to the tariff measures of the General Government to the verge of open war. From that time it became the leader of the extreme States' Rights party of the South, and upon various occasions threatened to secede from the Union.

In December, 1860, after the election of Abraham Lincoln to the Presidency, the State seceded from the Union. The ordinance of secession was adopted by the State Convention, on the 20th of December, 1860. The forts, arsenals, and public property of the United States in South Carolina were seized and occupied by the State forces, except Fort Sumter, in Charleston Harbor, which was held by a detachment of the Federal army. Hostilities began in the bombardment and capture of this fort by the Confederates in April, 1861.

During the war Charleston was besieged by the United States army, and its harbor blockaded by the navy. Several severe battles occurred in its immediate vicinity, but all the efforts of the fleet to reduce its defences were repulsed. In the summer of 1863, the defences of James Island were captured, and from that time the city was subjected to a severe bombardment; which laid a large part of it in ruins. It was held by the Confederates until Sherman's movements compelled them to evacuate it. As they left it they set fire to it, and nearly the whole city was destroyed. It was at once occupied by the Union troops. Port Royal Harbor was the scene of a severe naval bombardment in the fall of 1861. The Confederate forts defending the entrance were captured, and the harbor and its islands held during the war. After reaching Savannah at the close of his march from Atlanta, Sherman moved his army through this State, from the neighborhood of Port Royal to beyond Cheraw. His troops destroyed immense quantities of property, and damaged the State to a terrible extent. The capital, Columbia, was fired (the origin of the fire still remaining a disputed question) and almost entirely destroyed.

After the close of the war, a Provisional Government was appointed by the President. A State Convention was held, a new Constitution

framed, and an excellent system of Government established. Congress, however, denied the right of the President to make such changes, and in 1867 abolished the new order of affairs, and organized the State into a military district, the command of which was given to Major-General Daniel E. Sickles. In August, 1867, General Sickles was removed, and General Canby put in his place.

In January, 1868, a State Convention met at Charleston and adopted a Constitution, which was ratified by the people, and on the 25th of June, 1868, the State was readmitted into the Union.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

The principal cities and towns, besides the capital, are Charleston, Georgetown, Camden, Greenville, Orangeburg, and Winnsboro. .

COLUMBIA,

The capital and second city of the State, is situated in Richland district, or county, on the east bank of the Congaree, just below the confluence of the Broad and Saluda rivers. Latitude 33° 57' N., longitude 81° 7' W. It is 124 miles north-northwest of Charleston, and 500 miles southwest of Washington.

Columbia is one of the most beautiful cities in the Union. It is handsomely built, its streets are well paved, and are broad, straight, and shaded with stately trees, among which the magnolia and the live oak are conspicuous. It is located on the bluffs of the Congaree, a few miles below the falls of that stream, and is noted for the elegant mansions and exquisite gardens with which it abounds. The vicinity of the city is one of the most highly cultivated portions of the Union, and is noted for its model plantations, as well as for its fine scenery.

The public buildings are among the handsomest in the country. The *State House* is a magnificent edifice, 170 feet long and 60 feet wide, and cost nearly three millions of dollars. The *Insane Asylum* is under the control of the State. It is a splendid building and is richly endowed. The city buildings are handsome.

Columbia contains a number of fine public and private schools. The *South Carolina College*, sometimes called the *University of South Carolina*, is a flourishing institution. Here are located a theological school of the Presbyterian Church, and a Roman Catholic College. The city is supplied with pure water, and is lighted with gas. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. It contains a number of churches and 3 newspaper offices. In 1870 the population was 9298.

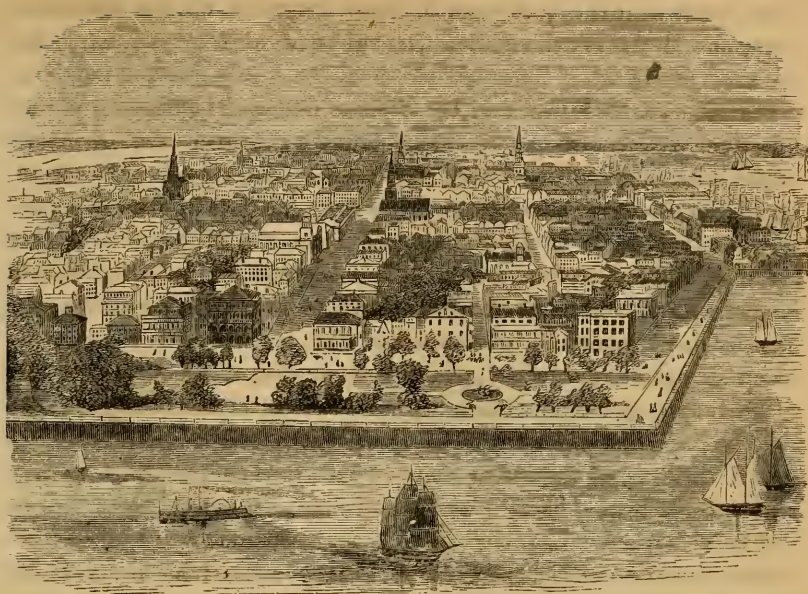
Columbia is at the head of steamboat navigation on the Congaree River, and is connected with all parts of the Union by railways. It is the centre of a large cotton trade.

The city was occupied by the forces of General Sherman on the 17th of February, 1865. On the same day a disastrous fire occurred, which laid a large portion of the city in ashes.

CHARLESTON,

The largest city and the metropolis of the State, is situated in Charleston district, or county, at the confluence of the Ashley and Cooper rivers, which unite to form its harbor. It is 7 miles from the sea, 124 miles south-southeast of Columbia, and 540 miles southwest of Washington. The city is built upon a plateau elevated about 12 feet above the level of the water. The tides rise to a height of 6 feet, and sweep by the city with a strong current, thus contributing greatly to its healthfulness.

The Cooper and Ashley rivers are from 30 to 40 feet deep, the former is 4200, and the latter 6300 feet wide. The harbor is spacious, and will admit vessels drawing 17 feet water. "The *coup d'œil* is imposing and highly picturesque. Though the grounds are low, hardly more than 12 feet above high water, the effect is fine; and the city, like Venice, seems, at a little distance, to be absolutely rising out of the sea. The bay is almost completely land-locked, making the harborage and roadstead as secure as they are ample. The adjuncts contribute to form a *tout ensemble* of much beauty. Directly at the entrance of the city stands Castle Pinckney, a fortress which covers an ancient shoal. A little south of Pinckney is Fort Ripley, a small square work, built of Palmetto logs, and filled with paving stones, built in 1862. On the sea-line rises Fort Moultrie, famous, as Fort Sullivan, in beating off, and nearly destroying, the British fleet, under Sir Peter Parker, in 1776. On the eastern extremity of the same island (Sullivan's), on which Fort Moultrie stands, may yet be traced the outline of the fortress which, under Colonel Thompson, with 700 Carolina rifles, defeated Sir Henry Clinton at the very moment when Moultrie drove Parker away from the South. Within the harbor the most conspicuous object, and the one also of commanding interest, is the ruined walls of Sumter. This fort, with that of Moultrie, once constituted the chief defences of Charleston. The events and operations of which these massive ruins have formed the chief centre and culminating point are too fresh in the public recollection to



CHARLESTON.

require more than a brief retrospect in these pages. The fort, which is an octagonal work of solid masonry, stands in the middle of the harbor. The armament consisted, at the time of the attack, of 140 guns. It was occupied by Major Anderson on the night of December 26, 1860, and at noon of the 27th the Union flag was hoisted over it. On the 11th of January following, Governor Pickens demanded a surrender of the fort, which being refused, preparations were commenced to attack it. Fire was opened under direction of General G. T. Beauregard at 4.30 o'clock A. M., April 11th, 1861, from the batteries on James Island. After a defence of thirty-two hours the garrison surrendered, and were transported to New York in the steamer *Baltic*. The present condition of the work sufficiently attests the warmth of the second attack, August, 1863. On James Island are seen the ruins of old Fort Johnson. On the opposite headlands of the Haddrill you may trace the old lines which helped in the defence of the city eighty years ago, but which are now mostly covered by the smart village of Mount Pleasant. These points, north, east, and south, with the city lying west of them, bound the harbor, leaving an ample circuit of bay—coursing over which, from

south to north, the eye pursues the long stretch of Cooper River, the Etiwando of the red men, along the banks of which, for many miles, the sight is refreshed by noble rice-fields, and in many places by the mansions and homesteads of the former planters. Steamers ply up this river, and return the same day, affording a good bird's-eye view of the settlements, along a very picturesque shore line on either hand. It was up this river that Mr. Webster distinguished himself by shooting an alligator, or rather shooting *at* him—the alligator diving at the shot, and leaving the matter sufficiently doubtful to enable an old lawyer and politician to make a plausible case of it. Standing on James Island, or on the battlements of Fort Sumter, the eye notes the broad stream of the Ashley, winding from west of the city, round its southernmost point, to mingle with the waters of the Cooper. The Ashley was anciently a region of great wealth and magnificence. It is still a river of imposing aspect—broad, capacious, with grassy, well-wooded banks, beyond which you may still behold some antique and noble edifices.”

The city is regularly built, and is about 2 miles long by about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles in width. The streets are not very wide, but are laid off regularly, and the city is one of the best built in the country. The principal streets are Meeting and King. These run north and south, nearly parallel, the whole length of the city. Meeting street is 60 feet wide, and on it is transacted the principal business of the city. It contains some of the handsomest public buildings, and the leading hotels. King street is much narrower, and is the principal shopping street.

“A large proportion of the population of Charleston consists of the gentry of the contiguous parishes, who, possessing large planting interests, are sufficiently opulent to maintain abodes in the city as well as on their plantations. Here they educate their children, and hither they resort in midsummer. This is the secret of something anomalous in the life of Charleston. It is resorted to in summer as a watering-place by the people of the country. This practice will account for some of those characteristics which are thought to be peculiar to the city. The planters bring with them wealth and leisure, and these naturally beget luxurious tastes and habits. These elevate the tone of society, but tend to the disparagement of labor and industry. Hence extravagant standards of living, and deficient enterprise as well as industry.

“The city covers a considerable extent of territory, more than its

number of people would seem to imply, as in other cities, in consequence of the suburban character of so many of the residents. The dwelling-houses of these are generally isolated, having large open grounds on every side, which are used for gardens. Rare exotics, the finer fruits, the peach, the nectarine, the orange, fill these spaces, and, with the vine, impart a rich, tropical character to the aspect of the abode, which itself may be neither very large nor very magnificent. Ample piazzas and verandahs, ranging from 1 to 3 stories, give coolness and shade to the dwelling. The houses are of brick or wood; there are few of stone. Charleston exhibits a peculiar taste in architecture. It is like no other city in the Union in this respect. There are few regular blocks or rows of buildings. There is no uniformity. Each man has built after his own fashion; and there are some singular emanations of taste; but what is lost in propriety is gained in variety, and with fine gardens, open plats of shrubbery, shade and fruit trees, the orange, peach, etc., creepers, vines, the rich foliage of the magnolia, the oak, the cedar, the Pride of India, girddling the white dwellings and the green verandahs, the effect is grateful and highly picturesque." Scattered through the city are a number of small public squares, the principal of which, the Battery, commands a fine view of the harbor.

The public buildings are numerous and handsome. The most conspicuous are the *City Hall*, *Court House*, *Police Court*, *Custom House*, *Jail*, *Workhouse*, and *South Carolina Hall*.

The schools of Charleston have always been famous. They embrace all classes, from the public primary school to colleges of a high grade. The principal establishments of the higher class are the *Military Academy*, conducted by the State (one-half of its pupils being State or free students); the *Charleston College*, founded in 1788; and the *Medical College of the State of South Carolina*. The city contains several fine libraries, among which are the *Mercantile*, *Apprentices*, and *City Libraries*. The *Art Society* and *Historical Society* are excellent institutions, and each possesses a valuable collection of works relating to its objects.

The benevolent establishments are well conducted. They consist of an *Alms-house*, an *Orphan Asylum*, and a *Hospital*, together with several humane and charitable societies. The cemeteries are among the most beautiful in the world, and are greatly admired.

The city contains over 30 churches, several fine hotels, about 4 daily newspapers, and several weeklies. It is lighted with gas, and is sup-

plied with water. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 48,956.

During the late war, the city was subjected to a severe bombardment from the United States batteries on the bay islands, and was severely injured. It is now slowly recovering from this damage, and the old buildings are being replaced with better and more convenient edifices.

Charleston is connected with the principal cities of the Union by railway, and by steamers with the Atlantic and Gulf ports. It is the centre of a large coasting trade, and possesses some foreign commerce. It exports more rice than any other city in the Union, and is next to New Orleans and Mobile in its exportation of cotton. It has also a large trade in tobacco, lumber, and flour. Considerable shipping is owned in the port. The commerce of the city was entirely destroyed by the late war, but is now rapidly reviving.

Charleston was settled about the year 1679, by an English colony acting under a charter from the British Crown. The expedition was led by William Sayle, who became the first Governor. Some years later the settlers were joined by a number of French Huguenots, who had been exiled from their native country on account of their religion. Its growth was greatly retarded by the fierce fevers incident to the southern coast, and by many other difficulties; but it surmounted these, and by 1731 contained 600 houses and 5 churches. It took an active part in the troubles of the Revolution, and, although it contained a large number of persons devoted to the royal authority, sided with the colonies. On the 24th of June, 1776, a British fleet under Sir Peter Parker, consisting of 9 ships of war, attacked the American fort on Sullivan's Island, which commanded the entrance to the harbor. The fort was unfinished and badly armed, and was garrisoned by only 400 men under Colonel Moultrie. The British were repulsed with severe loss, and came near losing their fleet. In 1778, a severe fire consumed 252 houses. On the 1st of April, 1780, Charleston was besieged by the British under Sir Henry Clinton. It was defended by General Lincoln and a small American force, who held out until May 12th, when they surrendered, half the city being in ruins and the people starving. The British held the city until 1782. In 1783, Charleston was incorporated as a city. In 1796, it was again ravaged by a fire, which destroyed nearly a third part of the city and property to the amount of \$2,500,000.

Charleston was the centre of the Secession movement which resulted

in the civil war. The beginning of hostilities—the bombardment and capture of Fort Sumter—occurred here. The harbor was closely blockaded during the war, and the defences of the city were frequently attacked by land and sea, and the city itself was subjected to a severe and destructive bombardment. After a long and desperate siege, it was recaptured by the United States forces on the 18th of February, 1865.

MISCELLANY.

AN INCIDENT IN THE LIFE OF SERGEANT JASPER.

Jasper had a brother, who had joined the British, and who held a similar rank in the army. To this brother he was warmly attached, and actually ventured into the British garrison at Ebenezer to see him. His brother was exceedingly alarmed, lest he should be seized and hung as an American spy; for his name was well known to many of the British officers. "Do not trouble yourself," said Jasper; "I am no longer an American soldier."

"Thank God for that, William," exclaimed his brother, heartily shaking him by the hand; "and now only say the word, my boy, and here is a commission for you, with regimentals and gold to boot, to fight for His Majesty, King George."

Jasper shook his head, and observed, that though there was but little encouragement to fight for his country, he could not find it in his heart to fight *against* her. And there the conversation ended. After staying two or three days with his brother, inspecting and hearing all that he could, he took his leave, returned to the American camp by a circuitous route, and told General Lincoln all that he had seen.

Soon after he made another trip to the English garrison, taking with him his particular friend, Sergeant Newton, who was a young man of great strength and courage. His brother received him with his usual cordiality; and he and his friend spent several days at the British fort without giving the least alarm. On the morning of the third day, his brother observed that he had bad news to tell him.

"Ay! what is it?" asked William.

"Why," replied his brother, "here are ten or a dozen American prisoners, brought in this morning, as deserters from Savannah, whither they are to be sent immediately; and, from what I can learn, it will be apt to go hard with them—for it seems they have all taken the king's bounty."

"Let us see them," said Jasper. So his brother took him and his friend Newton to see them. It was indeed a melancholy sight to see the poor fellows handcuffed upon the ground. But when the eye rested on a young woman, wife of one of the prisoners, with her child, a sweet little boy of five years, all pity for the male prisoners was forgotten. Her humble garb showed that she was poor; but her deep distress, and sympathy with her unfortunate husband, proved that she was rich in conjugal love, more precious than all gold. She generally sat on the ground opposite to her husband, with her little boy leaning on her lap, and her coal black hair spreading in long, neglected tresses on her neck and bosom. Sometimes she would sit, silent as a statue of grief, her eyes fixed upon the

earth : then she would start with a convulsive throb, and gaze on her husband's face with looks as piercing sad as if she already saw him struggling in the halter, herself a widow, and her son an orphan. While the child, distressed by his mother's anguish, added to the pathos of the scene by the artless tears of childish suffering. Though Jasper and Newton were undaunted in the field of battle, their feelings were subdued by such heart-stirring misery. As they walked out into the neighboring wood, the tears stood in the eyes of both. Jasper first broke silence. "Newton," said he, "my days have been but few ; but I believe their course is nearly finished."

"Why so, Jasper?"

"Why, I feel that I must rescue those poor prisoners, or die with them, otherwise, the remembrance of that poor woman and her child will haunt me to my grave."

"That is exactly what I feel, too," replied Newton ; "and here is my hand and heart to stand by you, my brave friend, to the last drop. Thank God, a man can die but once ; and why should we fear to leave this life in the way of our duty?"

The friends embraced each other, and entered into the necessary arrangements for fulfilling their desperate resolution.

Immediately after breakfast, the prisoners were sent on their way to Savannah, under the guard of a sergeant and corporal, with 8 men. They had not been gone long, before Jasper, accompanied by his friend Newton, took leave of his brother, and set out on some pretended errand to the upper country. They had scarcely got out of sight of Ebenezer, before they struck into the woods, and pushed hard after the prisoners and their guard, whom they closely dogged for several miles, anxiously watching an opportunity to make a blow. The hope, indeed, seemed extravagant ; for what could *two* unarmed men do against *ten*, equipped with loaded muskets, and bayonets ? However, unable to give up their countrymen, our heroes still travelled on.

About 2 miles from Savannah, there is a famous spring generally called the Spa, well known to travellers, who often stopped there to quench their thirst. "Perhaps," said Jasper, "the guard may stop there." Hastening on through the woods, they gained the Spa, as their last hope, and there concealed themselves among the thick bushes that grew around the spring. Presently, the mournful procession came in sight of the spring, where the sergeant ordered a halt. Hope sprung afresh in the bosoms of our heroes, though no doubt mixed with great alarms ; for "it was a fearful odds." The corporal, with his guard of four men, conducted the prisoners to the spring, while the sergeant, with the other four, having grounded their arms near the road, brought up the rear. The prisoners, wearied with their long walk, were permitted to rest themselves on the earth. Poor Mrs. Jones, as usual, took her seat opposite to her husband, and her little boy, overcome with fatigue, fell asleep in her lap. Two of the corporal's men were ordered to keep guard, and the other two to give the prisoners drink out of their canteens. These last approached the spring, where our heroes lay concealed, and, resting their muskets against a pine tree, dipped up water. Having drunk themselves, they turned away with replenished canteens, to give to the prisoners also. "Now, Newton, is our time," said Jasper. Then, bursting like lions from their concealment, they snatched up the two muskets that were resting against the pine, and in an instant shot down the two soldiers who were upon guard. It was now a contest who should get the loaded muskets that

fell from the hands of the slain ; for by this time a couple of brave Englishmen, recovering from their momentary panic, had sprung and seized upon the muskets ; but before they could use them, the swift-handed Americans, with clubbed guns, levelled a final blow at the heads of their brave antagonists. The tender bones of the skull gave way, and down they sunk, pale and quivering, without a groan. Then hastily seizing the muskets, which had thus a second time fallen from the hands of the slain, they flew between their surviving enemies and their weapons, grounded near the road, and ordered them to surrender ; which they instantly did. They then snapped the handcuffs off the prisoners, and armed them with muskets.

At the commencement of the fight, poor Mrs. Jones had fallen to the earth in a swoon, and her little son stood screaming piteously over her. But, when she recovered, and saw her husband and his friends freed from their fetters, she behaved like one frantic with joy. She sprung to her husband's bosom, and, with her arms round his neck, sobbed out, "My husband is safe—bless God, my husband is safe." Then, snatching up her child, she pressed him to her heart, as she exclaimed, "Thank God ! my son has a father yet." Then, kneeling at the feet of Jasper and Newton, she pressed their hands vehemently, but in the fullness of her heart she could only say, "God bless you ! God Almighty bless you !"

For fear of being retaken by the English, our heroes seized the arms and regiments of the dead, and, with their friends and captive foes, recrossed the Savannah, and safely joined the American army at Parisburgh, to the inexpressible astonishment and joy of all.

G E O R G I A .

Area,	58,000 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	1,057,286
(Whites, 591,588. Negroes, 465,698)	
Population in 1870,	1,184,109

THE State of Georgia, the most southern of the original members of the Union, lies between $30^{\circ} 21' 39''$ and 35° N. latitude, and between 81° and $85^{\circ} 53' 38''$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by North Carolina and Tennessee, on the east by South Carolina, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by Florida, and on the west by Florida and Alabama. The Savannah River separates it from South Carolina, and the Chattahoochee forms a part of the western boundary, separating the lower half of the State from Alabama and Florida. The greatest length of Georgia, from north to south, is about 300 miles, and its greatest width, from east to west, about 250 miles.

TOPOGRAPHY.

Along the coast, and for about 100 miles inland, the surface is flat and marshy, resembling the lower part of South Carolina. Rice is largely cultivated here. A fine rolling country occupies the centre of the State, while the northern and northwestern parts are traversed by the ranges of the Blue Ridge Mountains, which vary in height from 1200 to 4000 feet. The southeastern part contains a series of swamps, having a circuit of about 180 miles, known under the general name of Okefonokee Swamp. This is one of the wildest and rankest tracts in the South, and abounds in alligators, lizards, cranes, snakes, etc. The coast is lined with a chain of islands, similar to those of South Carolina, which produce the Sea Island cotton. The

waters lying between these islands and the shore constitute an inner passage along the coast, and are navigable for light draft vessels.

The coast is deeply indented with inlets, some of which afford good harbors.

The Savannah River, which separates the State from South Carolina, is formed by the Tugaloo and Seneca rivers. It is about 500 miles long, and is navigable for large steamboats to Augusta, 230 miles from the sea. Ships ascend to Savannah, about 15 miles from its mouth. It is lined with fine cotton and rice plantations, and above Augusta is an excellent mill stream. *The Ogeechee River* flows almost parallel with it, and empties into Ossabaw Sound, a short distance south of Savannah. It is navigable for small vessels for 30 or 40 miles, and for flat-boats to Louisville, near the centre of the eastern part of the State. Its principal branch, the Cannouchee, is navigable for small vessels for 50 miles. *The Altamaha River* flows into the Atlantic, south of the Ogeechee. It is formed by the Oconee and Ocmulgee, which, rising in the northern part and flowing through central Georgia, unite about 100 miles from the sea, and form the Altamaha. The main river is ascended by ships to Darien, not far from its mouth. The Ocmulgee is navigable for small steamers to Macon, and the Oconee to Milledgeville, the capital of the State—each nearly two hundred miles from the sea. *The Santilla* and *St. Mary's* drain the extreme southeastern part of the State, and are navigable for small vessels for about 30 or 40 miles, and much higher for flat-boats. *The Chattahoochee River* rises in the Blue Ridge Mountains, in Habersham county, in the extreme northeastern corner of the State. Flowing southwest to West Point, it strikes the boundary between Georgia and Alabama, and turns to the south, washing the western shore of the State to its southern extremity, where it empties into the Appalachicola River, of Florida. It is about 550 miles long, and is navigable for steamers, from November to June, to Columbus, 350 miles from its mouth. The rapids begin at Columbus. The upper part of the river flows through the gold region of Georgia, and is a fine mill stream. *The Flint River* is its principal branch. It rises in the western part of the centre of the State, and flows southwest into the Chattahoochee, just above the mouth of that river. It is about 300 miles long, and is navigable for steamers to Albany. The other rivers are the Tallapoosa and Coosa, the sources of the Alabama, in the northwest, the Hiawassee, one of the sources of the Tennessee, in the north, and the Ocklockony and Suwanee and their branches, in the south, which flow into Florida.

MINERALS.

The minerals of this State are gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, manganese, titanium, graphite, antimony, zinc, granite, marble, gypsum, limestone, coal, sienite, marl, burrstone, soapstone, slate, jasper, amethyst, chalcedony, cornelian, agate, rose quartz, garnets, and several others more or less valuable. Diamonds are sometimes found. The gold region lies in the northern part of the State, principally in and around Lumpkin county. Until the discovery of gold in California, it was the principal source of our supply. Previous to the war, the General Government maintained a branch mint at Dahlonega, in the centre of the gold region. In 1852, \$476,788 were coined at this mint. These mines are far from being exhausted, and are worked now with considerable profit.

"The white marble quarries of Cherokee county are of great extent, a portion of them affording statuary marble. The slate quarries of Polk county are now attracting much attention. The slate is considered equal to the Welsh, and is now being shipped to New York. The quarry is of enormous extent. Hydraulic cement, nearly white in color, and of excellent quality, is made near Kingston, Bartow county. The indications of petroleum in Floyd county are strong. That section has been thrown up in the wildest confusion. The formation is the lower silurian, abounding in fossils, and both the limestone and shale are highly bituminous. Iron ore abounds in Bartow and other counties."

CLIMATE.

The climate of Georgia is the most delightful of any of the far Southern States. The southern and southeastern parts are cooled by the sea breeze, and the mountain regions are, though severe in winter, delightfully cool in summer. The spring comes early and is pleasant.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The soil along the coast and the rivers is fertile, and produces almost any variety of food. About 65 or 70 miles from the coast, the Pine Barren region begins. This soil is naturally poor, but is easily fertilized. It produces valuable timber and naval stores. In the southwestern part of the State, the soil is light and sandy, but, although fertile, is easily worn out, and requires careful manuring.

In the middle counties the soil consists of a red loam originally fertile, but greatly exhausted by the bad system of agriculture pursued in the State. The northern part of the State is very fertile, and will produce cotton, but is much better adapted to the growth of grain, to which it is principally devoted. Cotton is raised in the central and southern counties, and rice along the coast and the lower parts of the principal rivers. The great extent of navigable rivers in this State renders it easy to bring the crops to market, and thus lightens the burdens of the producer. Grain is extensively grown in this State. The greater part of the cotton region can be tilled by white labor, but here and elsewhere, rice requires a cultivation which would be fatal to white laborers.

The agricultural interests of Georgia were fearfully damaged by the civil war, and the State is but slowly recovering from its losses. The statistics of 1869, the latest available, are very imperfect. They are as follows :

Acres of improved land,	8,062,758
Bushels of wheat,	2,170,000
“ rye,	73,000
“ oats,	1,200,000
“ Indian corn,	27,500,000
“ barley,	13,300
“ potatoes,	248,000
“ peas and beans,	1,965,212
Tons of hay,	48,000
Number of horses,	198,300
“ mules and asses,	200,150
“ milch cows,	301,180
“ young cattle,	780,350
“ swine,	2,150,300
Value of domestic animals,	\$45,372,734
Bales of cotton,	495,000
Pounds of rice (estimated),	30,000,000

COMMERCE.

At the commencement of the civil war, Georgia was building up a valuable and growing trade with the Northern States and with Europe. In 1860, the foreign exports of the State amounted to \$18,483,038, and the imports to \$782,061.

MANUFACTURES.

With an enterprise which won her the title of the “Empire State of the South,” Georgia was making great progress in manufactures

when the war broke out. Nearly all her establishments were either entirely destroyed, crippled, or forced to suspend operations by the events of the struggle. The State possesses unusual advantages for manufactures, and there can be little doubt that it will in a few years begin to develop this branch of its industry with its old energy. In 1870, there were 3836 establishments in Georgia devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts, employing a capital of \$13,930,125. There were 34 cotton mills, (30 of which were driven by water-power), with a capital of \$3,433,265, yielding an annual product of \$3,648,973; and 11 woollen factories, with a capital of \$894,135, yielding an annual product of \$352,583.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In 1872, there were 2108 miles of completed railroads in Georgia. The principal towns of the State are connected by railroad. Two main lines extend across the centre of the State, from Savannah to Macon and Columbus, and from Augusta to Atlanta and Chattanooga, Tenn. Three roads centre at Savannah, three at Augusta, three at Columbus, three at Macon, and four at Atlanta. By means of these and their branches, all parts of the State and the Union may be reached with ease and rapidity. Nearly every road in the State was destroyed during the war, but almost all have been restored since the return of peace.

EDUCATION.

In 1870, the State contained 31 colleges, averaging over 100 students each; 1603 academies and other schools, with 55,000 pupils; and 246 public schools, with 11,150 pupils. The schools were broken up by the war, and it was not until very recently that anything was done to restore them.

The present Constitution places the system of public education under the control of a State School Commissioner, appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate, for a period of four years. A permanent school fund has been authorized, which now amounts to \$242,000, and the Legislature is required to establish at least one or more common schools in each school district of the State as soon as possible, and to levy taxes for their support.

The University of Georgia is located at Athens, and was founded in 1801. It includes Franklin College, and is in a prosperous con-

dition. It is an excellent school, and possesses a library of 13,000 volumes, a valuable and complete chemical apparatus, and one of the best cabinets of mineralogy and geology in the Union.

Oglethorpe University, at Milledgeville; *Mercer University*, at Renfield; *Emory College*, at Renfield; and the *Wesleyan Female College*, at Macon, are the other prominent schools.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The State Penitentiary, at Milledgeville, was established in 1811, and was provided with fine and commodious buildings of granite. It was destroyed during the war, but has been partially rebuilt since the peace.

The State Lunatic Asylum is located at Medway, near Milledgeville. It was established in 1842. Blacks as well as whites are admitted. The institution is provided with ample and substantial buildings, and is now doing well.

The Academy for the Blind, at Macon, is an excellent institution. It is provided with handsome brick buildings, and is in successful operation.

The Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, in Murray county, in the northern part of the State, was closed during the war, and has not yet been reopened.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, there were 2698 churches in Georgia. The total value of church property was \$3,561,955.

FINANCES.

In 1874, the debt of the State amounted to \$8,105,500, having been increased since 1867. The State, according to the assertion of the Governor, possesses valuable assets to the amount of \$12,000,000. In 1874, the receipts of the State Treasury amounted to \$2,817,723, and the expenditures to \$1,814,494. The finances of Georgia are in a very unhappy condition. A portion of the public debt was overdue in 1870, and no provision had been made for its payment, and the credit of the State had been considerably damaged by the quarrels between the Governor and the Treasurer.

In 1868, there were 8 National Banks in Georgia, with an aggregate capital of \$1,600,000.

GOVERNMENT.

The present Constitution of the State was ratified by the people on the 20th of April, 1868. Every male person, born in the United States, or who has been naturalized, or who has legally declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States, twenty-one years old, who has resided in the State one year, and in the county thirty days, who has paid taxes, and every male citizen of the United States, who was a resident of this State at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, is entitled to vote at the elections. Soldiers and sailors in the service of the United States, idiots, insane persons, and convicts are excluded from the ballot. The Government is vested in a Governor, chosen by the people for four years, a Secretary of State, Treasurer, Comptroller-General, and Attorney-General, elected for four years by the General Assembly, and a Legislature, composed of a Senate (of 44 members) and House of Representatives (of 175 members). Senators are elected for four years, one-half retiring biennially, and Representatives for two years.

"The Judicial powers of the State are vested in a Supreme Court, Superior Courts, Courts of Ordinary, Justices of the Peace, Commissioned Notaries Public, and such other courts as may be established by law. The Supreme Court consists of three judges, and has jurisdiction only for the trial and correction of errors on appeal from lower courts. The judges are to be appointed, those of the Supreme Court for 12 years, and those of the Superior Courts for 8 years."

The seat of Government is located at Atlanta.

For purposes of government, Georgia is divided into 132 counties.

HISTORY.

Georgia was the last settled of the thirteen original colonies. It was at first included within the charter of Carolina, and was the object of rival claims on the part of Spain and England. On the 9th of July, 1732, George II. of England, after whom the province was named, granted it to a corporation, who were styled "Trustees for settling the colony of Georgia." It was designed to make this colony a refuge for the respectable poor of England. The first colony was planted at Savannah, in the spring of 1733, by General James Oglethorpe, but the condition of military service was attached to the possession of lands by the colonists, and had the effect of driving the best settlers from the colony, and in 1734 the system was changed,

and fifty acres in fee simple were offered to each settler. This offer drew a number of emigrants to the colony from Europe, chiefly from Germany and Scotland. In 1739, war broke out between England and Spain, and General Oglethorpe, with 1000 militia from Georgia and Florida, and a band of Indian allies, invaded Florida, and made an unsuccessful attempt to capture St. Augustine. In 1742, the Spaniards revenged this invasion by sending 36 ships and 3000 men into Georgia. Fort St. Simon, on the Altamaha River was taken, and Fort Frederica, on St. Simon's Island, would have fallen, had not the Spaniards, becoming alarmed at a stratagem of Oglethorpe, retired into Florida. Peace was restored soon after.

The early years of the colony were marked by troubles caused by the restrictions imposed by the Trustees. These and the prohibition of slavery occasioned so much discontent amongst the settlers that there was danger that the colony would be abandoned. In 1722, the Trustees surrendered their charter to the crown, and Georgia became a royal province. Privileges similar to those granted the other colonies were allowed it, not the least of which was the permission to import and hold negro slaves. After this the colony grew rapidly, and rice and cotton were largely cultivated. In 1775 the population numbered 75,000 souls. In this year its exports amounted to \$517,385, and its imports to \$558,885.

Georgia was prompt to give her support to the measures of protection and resistance, adopted by the other colonies, and made liberal contributions of men and money to the cause during the Revolution. In 1778, the British captured Savannah, and in 1779 took Augusta and Sunbury. From these points they overran the State, compelling many of the principal inhabitants to abandon their homes and flee for their lives. In 1779, the American forces made an effort to retake Savannah, but without success, and the British continued to hold the State until the close of the war.

The State Government was established and a Constitution adopted in 1777, and a second Constitution in 1785. The Federal Constitution was ratified on the 2d of January, 1788.

The Creeks and Cherokees, dwelling on the north and west frontiers of the State, gave considerable trouble by their hostilities, but in 1791, treaties were concluded with them which established the boundaries of the State, and put a stop to the troubles. In 1802, the Creeks ceded to the United States the lands which they held, and in the southwest part of this State, which were assigned by the General

Government to Georgia. In the same year, the State ceded to the United States all its claims to the lands west of its present limits. This territory is now embraced in the States of Alabama and Mississippi. In 1838 the Creeks were removed beyond the Mississippi, by the General Government, and Georgia came into possession of their lands, which now form the northern counties of the State.

At the outbreak of the civil war Georgia had reached a high degree of prosperity, which she was destined to lose during the struggle. The State seceded from the Union on the 19th of January, 1861. From the commencement of the war it began to suffer. Its coast was at the mercy of the navy of the United States, and was greatly damaged during the early part of the war. In the winter of 1862 the western armies commenced to operate in the northwestern part of the State, and from this time until the capture of Atlanta this section was the scene of a constant warfare. The battles of Chickamauga, between Rosecrans and Bragg, and the campaign between Sherman and Johnston, occurred in this State. In the fall of 1864 the Confederates were forced to evacuate Atlanta, which was at once occupied by Sherman. The inhabitants were driven out, and the city burned. After destroying Atlanta, Sherman marched southward to Savannah, which he reached and occupied on the 24th of December, 1864, ravaging the plantations along his march, destroying railroads, bridges, factories, and mills, carrying off provisions of all kinds, and marking his way by a wide belt of ruin. It is said by competent State authorities that the destruction of property in Georgia during the war amounted to \$400,000,000.

After the restoration of peace a Provisional Governor was appointed by the President, and a new State Government put in operation. Congress repudiated all these acts, and made the State a part of the Third Military District, the command of which was given to Major General Pope, who was succeeded by Major General Meade. In March, 1868, a State Convention was held, and a new Constitution adopted, which was ratified by the people in April, and the State was readmitted into the Union on the 25th of June, 1868. Owing, however, to the failure of the Constitution to admit the negroes to all the privileges possessed by the whites, Congress, on the 22d of December, 1869, passed a bill declaring Georgia *not* reconstructed, and handed the State over to the military authorities again. After an exciting contest the terms imposed by Congress were complied with, and the State was readmitted into the Union on the 14th of July, 1870.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Beside the capital, the principal cities and towns of Georgia are, Savannah, Augusta, Macon, Columbus, Rome, West Point, Dalton, Americus, Kingston, Marietta, Albany, Brunswick, and Darien.

ATLANTA,

Capital and fourth city of the State, is situated in Fulton county, 7 miles southeast of the Chattahoochee River, 171 miles west of Augusta. The location is high and healthy. Four of the principal railroads of the State terminate here, and it is to this that the city owes its rapid growth. Previous to the introduction of railways, it was an unimportant country village. It was incorporated as a city in 1847, and at the outbreak of the civil war had a population of about 10,000. It was occupied by the Confederate forces at the outset of the war, and was one of their most important posts. It was attacked by General Sherman in the summer of 1864, and several severe battles were fought in its vicinity. On the 2d of September it was captured by Sherman, who banished the inhabitants into the Southern lines. On the night of the 15th of November he caused the city to be burned, on the eve of his setting out on his "March to the Sea." Since the close of the war Atlanta has been almost entirely rebuilt. Owing to its position as a railroad centre, and the location of the capital of the State here, it is rapidly recovering its former trade and importance.

It is well built and regularly laid out. The principal buildings are the City Hall, the Medical College, and the *Opera House*, purchased in 1870 by the State, and now being fitted up as a State House. It contains 5 churches, several excellent public and private schools, and 9 newspaper offices. Three monthly magazines are also published here. The city is lighted with gas, is supplied with water, and is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1868 it became the capital of the State. In 1870 the population was 21,789.

SAVANNAH,

The largest city in the State, is situated in Chatham county, on the south bank of the Savannah River, 18 miles from the sea, and 188 miles east-southeast of Milledgeville. It is situated on a sandy plain about 40 feet above low-water mark, and is one of the most interesting cities in the South. Its streets are wide and straight, and at every other corner there is a public square, usually circular or oval in



SAVANNAH.

shape, planted with the Pride of India. The streets are broad, unpaved, and densely shaded with magnificent trees. Broad and Bay streets have handsomely turfed promenades in the centre, with carriage ways on each side. There is also a broad walk on each side of these streets. Its beautiful streets have gained for Savannah the name of "the Forest City" of the South. The squares are ornamented with handsome fountains, statues, monuments, etc. In Johnson's Square stands a handsome monument erected to the memories of Generals Greene and Pulaski. It is of pure white marble, and stands on the spot where Pulaski fell in the attack on the city by the American army in 1779. It cost \$22,000 in gold.

The city is handsomely built, many of the residences being of brick. The majority are of wood, however. In the business edifices brick and stone are extensively employed.

The Public Buildings are in keeping with the rest of the city. The principal are the *Exchange*, the *Court House*, the *State Arsenal*, the *Custom House*, the *Jail*, the *Lyceum*, *Oglethorpe* and *St. Andrew's Halls*, the *Armory*, the *Theatre*, and the *Chatham Academy*.

The schools are excellent, and the free schools are among the best in the South. The Benevolent and Charitable Institutions comprise the *Orphan Asylum*, the *Union Society*, founded by Whitfield, the *Hibernian* and *Seaman's Friend Societies*, the *Georgia Infirmary*, and the *Savannah Hospital*. The *State Historical Society* possesses a fine library. The city contains about 18 churches, a public library, several reading rooms, and 3 newspaper offices. It is lighted with gas, is supplied with pure water, and is governed by a Mayor and Council. It is considered one of the healthiest cities in the South; and is improving in this respect in consequence of the improved manner of cultivating the land in the vicinity. It is a favorite winter resort for invalids. In 1870 the population was 28,235.

In the vicinity is the *Cemetery of Bonaventure*, one of the most remarkably beautiful spots in the world.

Savannah is connected with all parts of the State, and with Charleston, S. C., by railway. Steamers navigate the Savannah to Augusta, and an active coast trade is maintained with the Northern and Southern ports of the Union. The chief articles of export are cotton, rice, lumber, and naval stores, of which large quantities are shipped annually from this port. The trade of the city is growing rapidly.

Savannah was founded by General Oglethorpe, in 1732 or 1733. It was captured by the British in December, 1778, and was evacuated by them in 1783. In 1796, and again in 1820, it suffered severely from fire. In December, 1864, it was captured by the United States army, under General Sherman, and was held by the Federal Government until the close of the civil war. On the 28th of January, 1865, a severe fire destroyed a considerable portion of the city.

AUGUSTA,

The second city of the State, is situated in Richmond county, on the west bank of the Savannah River, 120 miles north-northwest from Savannah, 230 miles from the mouth of the river by its course, and 136 miles northwest of Charleston. It lies at the head of navigation on the Savannah, and controls to a great extent the lucrative trade of upper Georgia. It is one of the handsomest cities in the South, and is laid off regularly, with broad, straight streets crossing each other at right angles. Broad street is the main thoroughfare, and is lined with substantial buildings. It contains the principal stores, the hotels, the banks, and the markets, and is the fashionable promenade.

MISCELLANY.

THE "EMPRESS" OF GEORGIA.

Among the Georgia settlers was a man by the name of *Thomas Bosomworth*, a chaplain in the regiment of Oglethorpe. It appears that he was an artful and avaricious man. In 1747, he laid a plan either to destroy the colony or acquire a fortune. Among a number of Indians present at Frederica, a small English settlement, not far from Savannah, in December, was an Indian king by the name of *Malatche*. Bosomworth suggested to him the idea of being crowned in imperial form, by those of his tribe who were with him: accordingly, a paper was drawn up, filled with royal ceremonies, acknowledging *Malatche Opiya Meco* to be the rightful, natural prince and emperor of the dominions of the Creek Nation; vesting him with powers to make laws, frame treaties, declare war, convey lands, and transact all affairs relating to the nation; binding themselves, on the part of their several towns, to abide by and fulfil all his contracts and engagements. This paper being signed and sealed by the pretended kings and chiefs, and witnessed in due form, Malatche requested that a copy of it might be sent over to the king of England, for his sanction, and to have it put on record among the archives of his great ally.

Bosomworth had thus accomplished an important object. He had some time before married Mary Musgrove, a half-breed Indian. He now drew up a deed of conveyance in the common form, from Malatche Opiya Meco, Emperor of the Upper and Lower Creek Nations, to Thomas and Mary Bosomworth, of the Colony of Georgia, "for, and in consideration of ten pieces of stroud, twelve pieces of duffles, two hundred weight of powder, two hundred weight of lead, twenty guns, twelve pair of pistols, and one hundred weight of vermilion; warranting and defending to the said Thomas and Mary all those tracts of land known by the names of Hussoope, or Ossabaw, Cowleygee, or St. Catherines, and Sapelo islands, with their appurtenances, etc., to the said Thomas and Mary his wife, their heirs and assigns, as long as the sun shall shine, or the waters run in the rivers, forever. Signed on the 4th day of the windy moon, corresponding with the 14th of December."

His next object was to induce Mary to claim to be the elder sister of Malatche, and of having descended in a maternal line from an Indian king, who held from nature the whole territories of the Creeks; and Bosomworth now persuaded her to assert her right to them, as superior not only to the trustees, but also to that of the king.

Accordingly, Mary assumed the title of an independent Empress. A meeting of the Creeks was summoned, before which she set forth her claims. The Indians became fired through her eloquence, and escorted her towards Savannah to prosecute her claim.

A messenger was dispatched to notify the president and council of the royal family's approach. On receiving this intelligence, the council felt embarrassed. Mary was an artful and eloquent woman; the English were few in number, and small their means of defence. The militia were ordered under arms. Captain Noble Jones, at the head of a troop, was dispatched to prevent, if possible, their entrance into Savannah armed. Having met them, he ordered them to stop and lay down their arms. At first they refused; but his determined appearance at length prevailed, and they laid aside their arms, upon which Thomas Bosom-

worth, in his canonical robes, with his queen by his side, followed by the king and chiefs, marched into the town.

The inhabitants were struck with terror at the sight of this ferocious tribe of savages. When they advanced up to the parade, they found the militia drawn up under arms to receive them, by whom they were saluted with fifteen cannons, and conducted to the president's house. Bosomworth being ordered to withdraw, the Indian chiefs, in a friendly manner, were requested to declare their intention in paying this visit in so large a body, without being sent for by any person in authority: the warriors, as they had been instructed, answered that Mary was to speak for them, and that they would abide by whatever she said; that they had heard that she was to be sent like a captive over the great waters, and they were come to know on what account they were to lose their queen; that they intended no harm, and begged that their arms might be restored to them; and after consulting with Bosomworth and his wife, they would return and amicably settle all public affairs. To please them, their guns were returned, but strict orders were issued to allow them no ammunition, until the council should see more clearly into their dark designs. On the day following, the Indians, having had some private conferences with Mary, were observed, with sullen countenances, to march in a tumultuous manner through the streets, evidencing a hostile temper, apparently determined on mischief: all the men being obliged to mount guard, the women and children were terrified and afraid to remain in the houses by themselves, expecting every moment to be murdered and scalped. During this confusion, a false rumor was circulated, that they had cut off President Stephen's head with a tomahawk, which so exasperated the inhabitants that it was with difficulty the officers could restrain the troops from firing upon the savages: perhaps the exercise of the greatest prudence was never more requisite to save the town from being deluged with blood. Orders were given to lay hold on Bosomworth, to whom it was insinuated that he was marked as the first victim in case of extremities; and he was carried out of the way, and closely confined, upon which Mary, his beloved queen, became outrageous and frantic, and threatened the thunder of her vengeance against the magistrates, and the whole colony: she ordered all white persons to depart immediately from her territories, and at their peril to refuse; she cursed Oglethorpe and his fraudulent treaties, and, furiously stamping her foot upon the earth, swore by her Maker that the whole globe should know that the ground she stood upon was her own. To prevent any ascendancy by bribes over the chiefs and warriors, she kept the leading men constantly under her eye, and would not suffer them to utter a sentence on public affairs, but in her presence.

The president, finding no peaceable agreement could be made with the Indians, while under the baleful influence of their pretended queen, ordered her to be seized and confined. To allay the storm of indignation excited by this, a feast was made for the Indians, at which the evil designs of Bosomworth were unfolded in a speech by the president. This had a temporary effect. Even Malatche seemed satisfied. But wishing to see Bosomworth and his wife alone for a few minutes, the artful couple again seduced the aged chief, who returned to the council full of indignation, insisting on the rights of the queen. Upon this, the president rose, and in a short but plain address, so set forth the impositions of Bosomworth and Mary, that the Indians said they were satisfied; their eyes were opened, and they now offered to smoke the pipe of peace. Accordingly, pipes and rum were brought, and they joined hand in hand and smoked together. Presents were distributed, and all appeared satisfied and happy.

But in the midst of this friendly interview, Mary, who by some means had contrived to escape, rushed in like a fury, and insultingly told the president that she would soon convince him that the Indians were her people, and that he had no business with them.

The president advised her quietly to retire to her lodgings, or he would send her to prison. Upon this Malatche took fire; and, swinging his arms, declared that no one should touch the queen. The house was filled in a moment with tumult; every Indian having his tomahawk in his hand, and the president and council expecting nothing but instant death. At this critical juncture, Captain Noble Jones with his guard interposed, and required the Indians to surrender; they did so with great reluctance. Mary was conveyed to a safe place. Bosomworth was sent for; but for a time treated the council with great indignity. At length, through the interposition of Bosomworth's brother, the difficulty was settled. This rash and wicked man was forgiven, and the idle claims of Mary were relinquished.

They were, however, afterwards renewed; Bosomworth himself instituted a suit in England, founded upon his deed from the Indians. This case was in the courts of Great Britain twelve years. In 1759, a decision was made at the Court of St. James, granting to Bosomworth and his wife the island of St. Catherines. Bosomworth and Mary took possession of the island. There, some time after, Mary died, and Bosomworth married his chambermaid. Finally, the remains of these two were deposited in the same graveyard, on the island for which they had so long contended.

FLORIDA.

Area,	59,268 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	140,425
(Whites, 77,748; Negroes, 62,677.)	
Population in 1870,	187,748

THE State of Florida is situated between 25° and 31° N. latitude, and between 80° and 87° 44' W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Alabama and Georgia, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by the Gulf of Mexico, and on the west by the Gulf of Mexico and Alabama. The southern part of the State forms a large peninsula. In the eastern part, Florida is about 385 miles long from north to south. Its width along its northern border is about 250 miles from east to west. The average width of the peninsula is about 80 miles.

TOPOGRAPHY.

“Florida,” says Professor De Bow, “is generally level, probably never elevated more than 250 or 300 feet above the sea, and the southern part of the peninsula is covered with a large sheet of water, called the Everglades, of an immense extent (filled with islands), which it is supposed may be rendered available by drainage. The central portion of the peninsula is somewhat elevated, the highest point being about 171 feet above the ocean, and gradually declining towards the coast on each side. The country between the Suwanee and Chatahoochee is elevated and hilly, and the western portion of the State is level. The lands of Florida are almost *sui generis*, very curiously distributed, and may be designated as high hummock, low hummock, swamp, savanna, and the different qualities of pine land. High hummock is usually timbered with live and other oaks, magnolia,

laurel, etc., and is considered the best description of land for general purposes. Low hummock, timbered with live and water oak, is subject to overflow, but when drained is preferred for sugar. Savannas, on the margins of streams, and in detached bodies, are usually very rich alluvions, and yielding largely in dry, but needing ditching and dyking in ordinary seasons. *Marsh savannas*, on the borders of tide streams, are very valuable, when reclaimed, for rice or sugar-cane."

Southwest of Florida, is a chain of small rocky islands, called the Florida Keys. They are inhabited principally by wreckers, and by persons engaged in the fisheries and the manufacture of salt. The largest and most important of these is Key West, which is strongly fortified, and is one of the chief naval stations of the Union.

The Sea Islands extend from South Carolina and Georgia, along the northeast coast of Florida, and are among the finest and most productive parts of the State. The Everglades cover an immense area, about 160 miles long, and 60 miles broad. Professor De Bow speaks of them as a vast lake, filled with innumerable islands of all sizes, which are covered with a low dense undergrowth, out of which occasionally rises a huge pine or palmetto. The water is 6 or 8 feet deep, and is filled with a long rank grass which grows from a vegetable deposit at the bottom. The banana and plantain grow well in this region.

The principal bays are Pensacola, Choctawhatchie, St. Andrew's St. Joseph's, Appalachicola, Appalachie, Waccasassa, Tampa, Charlotte Harbor, Oyster, and Ponce de Leon bays, all on the west side. Pensacola Bay affords an excellent harbor, and is the principal naval station of the Republic in the Gulf of Mexico.

The rivers of the State are the *Perdido*, a small stream separating Florida from Alabama on the west; the *Escambia*, *Yell-sow*; *Choctawhatchie*, *Ocklockonee*, and *Suwanee*, which rise in Alabama and Georgia and flow into the Gulf of Mexico on the south, none of them being over 50 or 60 miles in length. The others are the *Carlosahatchie*, through which Lake *Okeechobee* discharges its waters into the Gulf, the *Withlacoochee* and *Tampa*, on the west, and the *St. Mary's* (partly separating the State from Georgia), the *St. John's*, and *Indian* rivers, emptying into the Atlantic on the east. The Indian River is a mere inlet from the ocean entering the State at its southeast part, and extending north and south. It is about 100 miles long, and of very unequal breadth. The *St. John's* is the principal river of Florida. It rises in a marshy tract near the central part of the peninsula, and



ST. JOHN'S RIVER.

flows in a generally northwest course into the Atlantic in the northern part of the State. It is over 200 miles long, and is navigable for steamers to Pilatka, about 60 miles. Vessels drawing 8 feet of water ascend the river for 107 miles. The country along the greater portion of the stream is a region of cypress swamps and pine barrens. The Appalachicola is navigable for vessels to its head.

A chain of lakes extends through the centre of the peninsula. The most southern of these is Lake Okeechobee, about 20 miles long.

CLIMATE.

The climate is mild and pleasant. It partakes largely of the characteristics of the torrid zone, on the borders of which the State lies. It is of great benefit to invalids. A writer in the *New York Observer* thus speaks of it:

“As to the most desirable localities for invalids, the most accessible are on the St. John’s River and St. Augustine. The interior or central portion of the peninsula may present a climate even better for

pulmonary invalids; but those parts of the country are not supplied with suitable accommodations, and are not much visited. . . .

“Range of the thermometer and the weather. The *Army Meteorological Register* gives the monthly mean temperature for 20 years at St. Augustine, and for 31 years at West Point, N. Y., as follows :

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
St. Augustine....	57·03	59·94	63·34	68·78	73·50	71·88	64·12	57·26
West Point	28·28	28·83	37·63	48·70	59·82	53·04	42·23	31·98

“Most of the common garden vegetables flourish all winter, oranges ripen on the trees, roses bloom, and mocking-birds sing. A few times we have frost—three times, I believe, last winter. Do not suppose there are no changes of temperature, though there are fewer than in any other State. There are many, and, at times, they are sudden; but the thermometer rarely goes down to freezing, and the shock is far less to a delicate constitution than where it goes far below. During the greater part of the time the sun shines brightly, and invalids can be in the open air. This is the greatest benefit of the climate. I have known many who dared not set foot on the ground from November to April at the North, who have spent part of every day walking, riding, playing croquet, or hunting and fishing. Often, parties are formed who go down the peninsula, camping out, and, as they get beyond the reach of frost within 100 miles south of St. Augustine, such life is most enjoyable for those who have strength for it. Much of the time during every winter we sit with open doors and windows. Above all things, it is important for those who come here for health to keep as much as possible in the open air.”

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The soil is generally sandy. In the hummocks, however, it is mixed with clay. It is fertile, and yields abundant returns with judicious culture. The best lands in the State are in the marshes. With a proper system of drainage they could be made the most productive spots in America.

The natural growth of the State is very rich. The live oak and other varieties of this tree, so highly prized by ship-builders; the cypress, pine, hickory, dogwood, magnolia and laurel abound. The timber trade of the State is very valuable, and is growing in importance every year.

“Cotton, corn, sugar-cane, rice, potatoes, and fruits are the princi-

pal crops, but under the present system of culture yields are small and agriculture not profitable. In a number of counties cotton has been the specialty, but under present prices its production will doubtless decline in favor of other crops. Sugar-cane is considered a good crop, and is getting more in favor; it is easily cultivated, and, as our Leon correspondent says, 'would be a good crop for white labor.' In Baker county, sea-island cotton and sugar-cane are the chief productions. Duval county, sweet potatoes, corn, and sugar-cane; corn yielding twenty bushels per acre, sweet potatoes one hundred to two hundred bushels, sugar-cane two hundred gallons syrup and two hundred pounds of sugar; the latter is the most profitable crop. In Alachua, sea-island cotton is the specialty, of which our reporter says: 'The price of this cotton last year ranged from 40 cents to \$1.60 per pound; this year, from 35 to 90 cents. The average yield is about eighty-five pounds of lint per acre, but as high as four hundred pounds have been raised. At 50 cents, with the present labor, it is a paying crop. Cotton is a hard crop to raise, takes the whole year, and, for the labor expended, is the least paying crop in the country. During the past season ninety-nine out of every hundred have lost money. Corn produces an average of eight bushels on pine lands, and fifteen bushels on hummocks. Sugar-cane does well, but is raised for home consumption only.' Wheat is not grown as a crop in Florida, though a correspondent writes from Levy county, that he thinks it would do well on their hummock lands; and our Manatee reporter says he has sown a package sent from this department, and it now looks as well as he has ever seen wheat in Maryland or elsewhere. There are a variety of natural grasses growing throughout the State, and, as a general rule, cattle are pastured on the wild lands and without expense, frequently the whole year round. Among the grasses named by our correspondents are, Bermuda grass, crab-grass, crow-foot, joint-grass, carpet-grass, wire-grass, etc. Our Levy county correspondent writes:—'The grasses are all wild; stock runs out all the year in the woods. They are gathered in the spring, and penned every night until about August, when they are again turned out to run during the fall and winter. While kept up they are branded, and the cows are milked, though they are generally small, and give but little milk, from one to three quarts per day.'"* Tropical fruits are easily cultivated in this State.

* Agricultural Report for February, 1868.

Oranges and lemons are raised in considerable quantities; also, bananas, citrons, figs and other fruits, and it is believed that coffee can be successfully cultivated in the southern part.

The agricultural wealth of the State may be given as follows :

Acres of improved land,	750,000
Bushels of Indian corn,	2,500,000
Pounds of tobacco,	250,000
Bales of cotton,	50,000
Pounds of rice,	425,000
Bushels of peas and beans,	65,000
“ sweet potatoes,	800,000
Hhds. of cane sugar,	1,500
Number of horses,	12,000
“ milch cows,	63,000
“ asses and mules,	9,000
“ swine,	160,000
“ sheep,	30,000

The undergrowth of the State, as we have remarked, is very rank. Huge alligators and snakes abound in the swamps; the rivers are well stocked with fish; and turtle, oysters and wild fowl abound along the coast.

COMMERCE.

This State has little or no foreign commerce. Its trade is almost entirely with the States north of it, and its exports consist of cotton, rice, naval stores, and fruits. In 1860 the exports of the State amounted to \$1,330,230, and the imports to \$336,931.

MANUFACTURES.

Very little attention is paid to manufactures. In 1870 the capital invested in them amounted to \$1,679,930. The annual product was valued at \$4,685,403. The lumber trade almost monopolized this, the value of sawed and planed lumber being \$2,236,780.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In 1872 there were 466 miles of completed railroads in Florida, constructed at a cost of about \$9,000,000. The principal towns are connected with each other, and with all parts of the Union by railroad.

EDUCATION.

In 1870 there were 223 public schools in Florida, with 10,132 pupils, and 154 others schools and academies, with over 10,000 pupils. They were nearly all closed by the war. The new Constitution makes provision for a system of public free schools, which are to be supported by a special tax levied by the Legislature, and a permanent school fund has been created. The system is in charge of a State Superintendent of Public Instruction. This officer, and the Secretary of State and Attorney-General, constitute the State Board of Education. Two State seminaries, the east Florida and west Florida, have been established. The State Superintendent, in his report for 1870, says free schools are gaining in favor with the people.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

This State has no penitentiary or charitable asylums. The Constitution makes provision for them, and the Governor strongly recommends their establishment. Criminals are supported in idleness in the county prisons, by the State, which receives no return for this outlay. The Governor, in his message for 1868, declared that this expense was so heavy that he was compelled to pardon many criminals in order to save the State from bankruptcy.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870 there were 390 churches in Florida, and the value of church property was \$426,520. Many of the churches were destroyed during the war.

FINANCES.

On the 1st of January, 1874, the State debt amounted to \$1,620,809, including \$276,325 in outstanding Comptroller's warrants and Treasurer's certificates. The receipts of the Treasury for the year 1874 were \$280,837, and the expenditures \$254,328.

GOVERNMENT.

The present Constitution of the State was ratified by the people in May, 1868. Every male person twenty-one years old, without regard to race, color, nationality, or previous condition, who is a citizen of the United States, or who shall have legally declared his

intention to become a citizen of the United States, and who shall have resided in the State one year, and in the county six months, is entitled to vote at the elections. Persons coming of age, or becoming citizens after 1880, will not be allowed to vote without being able to read and write, but no one who is an elector previous to that year shall be afterwards deprived of the elective franchise because of such ignorance.

The Government is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Comptroller, Treasurer, and Attorney-General, and a Legislature consisting of a Senate (of 24 members, chosen for four years, one-half retiring biennially), and an Assembly (of 53 members, elected for two years). The Seminole Indians are entitled to one member in the Assembly. He must be a member of that tribe, and chosen by the qualified electors thereof. The Governor and Lieutenant-Governor are chosen for four years by the people. The Executive officers are appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate. The Legislature meets annually.

The courts of the State are the Supreme Court, seven Circuit Courts, and a County Court in each county. All the judges are appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate. The *Supreme Court* consists of a Chief Justice and two Associate Justices.

For purposes of Government the State is divided into 37 counties. The seat of government is located at Tallahassee.

HISTORY.

Florida was discovered by the Spaniards, on Easter Sunday, *Pascua Florida*, and partly on this account, and partly because of its natural beauty, was given its present name, which signifies "the flowery." It was first visited by Ponce de Leon, in 1513. Subsequently, Vasquez, a Spaniard (in 1520), Verazzani, a Florentine (in 1523), and De Geray, a Spaniard (in 1524), made voyages to it. In 1526, Charles V., of Spain, granted all the lands between Cape Florida and the Rio Panuco to Pampilo de Narvaez, who, in 1528, landed at Appalachee with a considerable military force. He was stoutly resisted by the Indian tribes, and was finally shipwrecked and drowned on the coast, near the mouth of the Panuco. Only ten of his followers returned to Europe. In 1539, Florida was explored by Fernando de Soto, who penetrated as far into the continent as the Mississippi River. Some years later a colony of French Huguenots was established in Florida. The Spaniards attacked them in 1564, and hanged many of them on the trees. Having driven out the French, they built a fort on the

spot. It was subsequently taken by a French expedition, and the garrison hanged, in retaliation for the original murders. In 1565, the Spaniards founded the city of St. Augustine, now the oldest European settlement in the Union. They held it until 1586, when it was captured by the English under Sir Francis Drake.

In 1696, Pensacola was settled by the French. The English had claimed the northeastern part of the country nearly a century before, and now made frequent inroads upon the Spanish settlements. In 1702, an expedition from Carolina made an unsuccessful attempt to capture St. Augustine, and the next year took Fort St. Mark. The expedition of Oglethorpe, and the counter invasion of Georgia by the Spaniards, have already been related in the preceding chapter.

In 1763, Spain ceded the whole of Florida to Great Britain, in exchange for the Island of Cuba, which had been captured by the English. The country was now divided into two provinces, the Appalachicola River being the dividing line. Many settlers came over from Carolina, and a number of emigrants arrived from Italy and the islands of the Mediterranean. The English held the country during the Revolution, and sent out many privateers from it, and incited the Indians to hostilities against the Americans in Carolina and Georgia. In 1778, General Prevost invaded Georgia, from this State, and captured Savannah and other towns. This withdrawal of his forces, however, left Florida at the mercy of the Spaniards, who at once entered it, and in 1781 captured Pensacola, and occupied a considerable part of the province. The treaty of 1783 restored Florida to Spain, upon which the majority of the inhabitants abandoned it, and removed to the United States. The cession of Louisiana to the United States, by France, gave the former country a claim to the country west of the Perdido River, which now comprises the extreme southern end of Alabama. This section was promptly occupied by the Federal army. During the second war with England, it was ascertained that the British had been allowed by the Spaniards to fit out an expedition against the United States from Pensacola. General Jackson at once entered Florida with his army, and captured Pensacola. He retook the town in 1818, and also Fort St. Mark, but they were restored to Spain, who, in 1819, sold the whole province to the United States. The American authority was established in Florida, in 1821. Emigrants at once commenced to flock thither, and the territory began to prosper. The growth of Florida was much impeded by the war which broke out in 1835, between the Government and the Seminole

Indians, who occupied the best lands in the State, and refused to allow the whites to settle upon them. The war lasted until May, 1858, when the Seminoles agreed to remove to the West, and were at once conveyed thither. The war cost the Government over \$30,000,000 and thousands of lives.

Florida was organized as a territory in 1819, and admitted into the Union as a slaveholding State, on the 3d of March, 1845. It seceded from the Union on the 10th of January, 1861, and joined the Southern Confederacy. The State authorities, in January, 1861, seized the navy yard and the forts at Pensacola, with the exception of Fort Pickens, on Santa Rosa Island, in Pensacola Bay, which was held by its commander, Lieutenant Slemmer. It was afterwards strongly reinforced, and on several occasions bombarded the Confederate works at Pensacola.

The State suffered much during the war. Key West, the Tortugas, and Fort Pickens were held by the Government from the beginning of the struggle, and afforded ready means of entering its territory; while the possession of Port Royal, in South Carolina, by the National forces, placed northeastern Florida at their mercy. A large part of the plantations were ruined, several towns were destroyed, and others more or less injured, and several severe battles were fought within the limits of the State. Slavery was abolished by the result of the war, but by that time desertions and disease had greatly reduced the negro population. At the close of the civil war, a Provisional Government was established by the President of the United States, which was the next year repudiated by Congress. In 1867, the State was made a part of the Third Military District, the headquarters of which were at Atlanta, Georgia. In January, 1868, a State Convention assembled at Tallahassee, and adopted a Constitution, which was ratified by the people on the 6th of May, and Congress, approving this action, readmitted the State into the Union on the 25th of June, 1868.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Beside the capital, the principal towns are, Pensacola, Key West City, Jacksonville, St. Augustine, Quincy, and Monticello.

TALLAHASSEE,

The capital of the State, is situated in Leon county, about 25 miles from the Gulf of Mexico, and 194 miles east of Mobile. Latitude,

30° 28' N.; longitude, 84° 36' W. The city lies on elevated ground, is regularly laid out, and contains several tasteful public squares. It is well built, and is regarded as one of the healthiest and pleasantest cities in the South. It lies in the heart of the most populous and fertile portion of the State, and is connected with the Atlantic and Gulf coasts, and with Savannah, Ga., by railway. It contains the *State House*, *Court House*, a jail, a Land Office of the United States, several churches, several fine schools, and 2 newspaper offices. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. Its importance is due solely to its being the capital of the State. In 1870 the population was 2023.

PENSACOLA

Is situated in Escambia county, on the west shore of Pensacola Bay, about 10 miles from the Gulf of Mexico, 180 miles west of Tallahassee, and 64 miles east of Mobile. It is one of the principal places in the State, and now that it has railway communication with the rest of the Union, is rapidly growing in its commercial importance. It possesses an admirable harbor, admitting vessels drawing 21 feet of water. The town is a naval station of the United States, and contains an important navy yard. The entrance to the harbor is defended by Fort Pickens, on Santa Rosa Island, and Forts Barrancas and McRea on the mainland.

The city presents rather a decayed appearance, and bears many marks of its Spanish origin. The houses are mostly old-fashioned and of wood; the streets are generally unpaved, and the sidewalks are frequently of wood. The principal building is the *Custom House*. There are several churches and schools, and 2 newspaper offices in the city. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870 the population was 3347.

Pensacola was permanently settled by the Spaniards about the year 1699. The French made frequent efforts to drive away the Spaniards, and in 1719 captured the place, and held it until 1723, when they restored it to Spain. In 1763 all Florida, including Pensacola, passed into the hands of the British. Pensacola was besieged and re-captured by the Spanish in 1781. In 1783 the whole province was restored to Spain. In 1814 the city was attacked and captured, with its adjacent forts, by General Jackson, whose object was to drive out the British who had been allowed by the Spaniards to establish themselves there. In 1818 the Spaniards being either unable or unwilling to put a stop to the inroads of the Indians from Florida into the

United States, General Jackson again took possession of the city, and obliged the Spanish Governor, who had taken refuge in Fort Barrancas, to surrender that work. In 1821 Pensacola became a city of the Union by the purchase of Florida. In January, 1861, after the secession of Florida from the Union, the State troops took possession of the navy yard, Forts Barrancas and McRea, and the other Government property. The United States forces, under Lieutenant Slemmer, occupied Fort Pickens, on Santa Rosa Island, and held it until reinforced. The Southern forces at once laid siege to Fort Pickens, which was also defended by a naval force. The siege of this fort, and the blockade of Pensacola, lasted during the greater portion of the civil war.

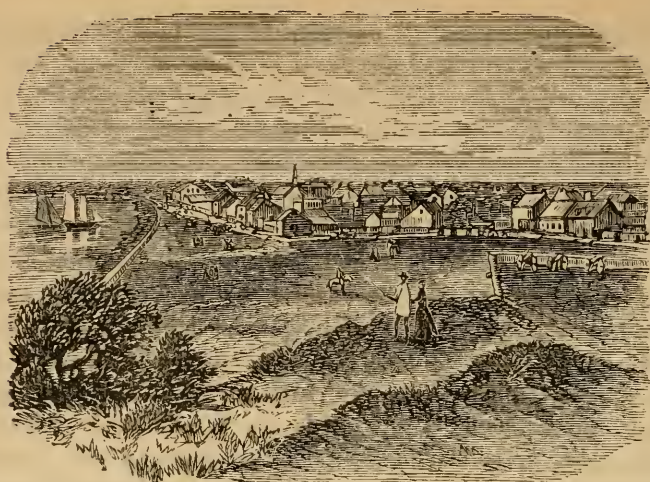
ST. AUGUSTINE

Is situated in St. John's county, on the north shore of Matanzas Sound, 2 miles from the Atlantic, from which it is separated by Anastasia Island. It is 200 miles east by south from Tallahassee. It possesses but little trade, although its harbor is safe and large. Large ships cannot enter it, however, as there is but 9 or 10 feet of water on the bar. It is reached by steamer from Jacksonville. It contains the county buildings, several churches and schools, and 1 newspaper office. In 1870 the population was 1717.

St. Augustine is the oldest town in the United States, and one of the most interesting. It was settled by the Spaniards in 1564. The site was originally a shell hummock, scarcely 12 feet higher than the surface of the sea. The town formerly stood in a grove of orange trees, but in 1834 a great frost destroyed these. Frost, however, is very rare in this part of Florida. Many winters pass without the slightest mark of it, and snow is almost unknown.

"St. Augustine is built along the seaward side of a narrow ridge of land, situated between a salt marsh and estuary half a mile from the beach, two miles from the ocean, in sight of the bar and light-house, and in hearing of the surf. The soil is sandy loam and decomposed shell, and is very productive. Approaching by a bridge and crossing the St. Sebastian River and marsh, the stranger enters a well-shaded avenue, flanked by gardens and orange-groves, which leads directly to the centre of the quaint old city. Here is the public square, a neat enclosure of some two acres, facing which, on either side, stand the Court House, the market and wharf, the Protestant Episcopal Church—a plain building, in the pointed style, handsomely

furnished—and, immediately opposite, the venerable Roman Catholic Church, a striking edifice of seemingly great antiquity, but built only about eighty years ago. It is of the periwig pattern, and in the worst possible taste. One of its bells bears date 1682. Connected with this church is a small convent and school. A minute's walk brings us to the sea-wall or breakwater, a broad line of massive masonry, built about 1840 by order of Government, at great cost, for the protection of the city, but whose chief use is that of affording to the inhabitants the pleasantest promenade in fine weather. This wall extends half a mile southward to the now deserted barracks and magazine, and as far northward as *Fort Marion* (formerly Castle of St. Mark), a picturesque and decayed fortress, which once commanded the whole harbor, looming up out of the flat landscape, grand as a Moorish castle, and forming the most conspicuous and interesting relic of the Spanish occupation. Parallel to this sea-wall, run north and south, with short intersections, the three principal streets or lanes, long, narrow, without pavement or sidewalk, irregularly built up with 'dumpy' but substantial houses, rather dingy and antediluvian, mostly of stone, or with the lower stories stone and the upper of wood. They have invariably the chimneys outside, and are ornamented with projecting balconies and latticed verandahs, from which the gay paint has long since faded, being all toned and weather-stained into one sombre gray hue, which, in keeping with the surroundings, is the joint result of age, neglect, sun, and saline air. Every house is separated from its neighbor by more or less of garden plot, ill protected by broken fence and crumbling wall, wherein they raise two or more crops of vegetables every year, figs in perfection, and roses in unmeasured abundance. St. Augustine is sometimes styled the 'Ancient City.' Its appearance is in strict keeping with its venerable age, seen in the unequivocal marks of decay or decrepitation. Perhaps the friable nature of the common building material contributes to this ruinous appearance, all the older houses being constructed of a stratified concrete of minute shell and sand called 'coquina,' in blocks conveniently obtained, and easily worked, hardening by exposure, but abrading and crumbling in course of time. Coquina houses are invariably dark, and always damp in winter, on which account frame dwellings, though not so cool, for summer houses, are much preferred by the innovating Yankees. But the Minorcan, or sub-Spanish population, still adhere to their traditions, and refuse to be reformed. They build for the summer time—the longest season. Northerners seeking in Florida a



ST. AUGUSTINE.

mild climate generally prefer St. Augustine ; and with the best reason. The proximity of the Gulf Stream renders it warmer in winter and cooler in summer than the settlements on the St. John's River. It is at present the most southern habitable place on the eastern coast ; and it has peculiar advantages over all other towns in East Florida—in its churches, its company, and its comforts. Good society may be always had there ; the citizens are hospitable, and among the visitors are always some agreeable persons, cultivated and distinguished. Visitors begin to arrive about the holidays. From the middle of March to the middle of April is the height of the season, and then the hotels are crowded. Deliciously fresh and mild is the atmosphere during the first spring heats. Then the soft south wind fills the senses with a voluptuous languor, and the evening land breeze comes laden with the fragrance of orange-blossoms and the breath of roses. A moonlight walk upon the sea-wall suggests the Mediterranean, and the allusion is heightened by the accents of a foreign tongue. The effect of these happy climatic and social conditions is very noticeable. The most morose tempers seem to lose their acerbity, and even the despairing invalid catches the contagion of cheerfulness. Two-thirds of the population of St. Augustine are of Spanish origin, and still speak the Spanish language. The women are pretty, modest, dark-eyed brunettes ; dress neatly in gay colors, are skilful at needle-work, and good housewives. The men exhibit equally characteristic traits of race and nationality. The people are generally poor. There are no

manufactures. The town produces little, and exports nothing—its chief support, since the loss of its orange-groves, being derived from Government offices, and receipts from strangers. It has one saw-mill, rarely running.”

KEY WEST CITY,

In Monroe county, in the most populous town in the State. It is situated on the island of Key West, about 60 miles southwest of Cape Table, latitude $24^{\circ} 33' N.$; longitude $81^{\circ} 40' W.$ It is a well-built town, of nearly 700 houses. The streets are 50 feet wide and cross each other at right-angles. It contains 4 churches, 5 schools, and a fine *Marine Hospital* belonging to the United States.

About 30,000 bushels of salt are made annually at Key West by solar evaporation. Large quantities of sponges, turtles, and fish are exported to the Atlantic cities. The principal business of the place, however, is wrecking. About forty-five or fifty vessels are annually wrecked in the vicinity of the island, and the inhabitants derive an annual profit of about \$200,000 from the salvages and other perquisites of these vessels. This business is conducted under equitable and strict laws, and is of benefit to ship-owners as well as to the islanders.

Key West was first settled in 1822. It is one of the most important military stations of the United States, as it is the key to the Florida Pass and the Gulf of Mexico. The harbor is large and safe, and will admit vessels drawing 22 feet of water. Its entrance is defended by Fort Taylor, a powerful work. The steamers from Charleston and New York touch at this port once a week, and furnish the only regular communication with the mainland. In 1870 the population was 5000.

ALABAMA.

Area,	50,722 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	946,244
(Whites, 526,431; Negroes, 419,813)	
Population in 1870,	996,992

THE State of Alabama is situated between 30° 10' and 35° N. latitude, and between 85° and 88° 30' W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Tennessee, on the east by Georgia, on the south by Florida and the Gulf of Mexico, and on the west by Mississippi.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The northeast part of this State is occupied by the southwest end of the Alleghany Mountains, which terminate here. They gradually sink down into a fine rolling country, which covers the whole surface of the State to within sixty miles of the Gulf, where it becomes level.

The principal rivers are the Alabama, Tennessee, Tombigbee, Black Warrior, and Coosa. The Perdido separates the State from Florida in the southeast, and the Choctawhatchie, Pea, Yellow, Conecuh, and Escambia rivers rise in the southern part of the State, and flow south into Florida.

The Alabama River, the most important stream in the State, is formed by the Coosa and Tallapoosa, which unite about 10 miles above Montgomery. It flows in a generally southwest direction, and empties through Mobile Bay into the Gulf of Mexico. About 45 miles above Mobile, it is joined by the Tombigbee. Below this, it is called the Mobile River. It is navigable at all seasons for first-class steamers. The Tallapoosa is navigable for a short distance, and the Coosa for about 160 miles. The length of the main stream is

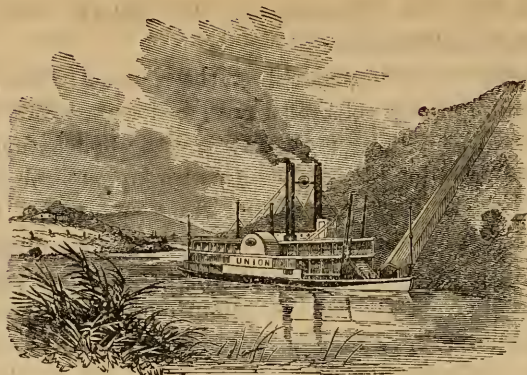
about 300 miles. Its tributaries are the Cahawba and Tombigbee, besides several small streams.

Mr. Russell, the correspondent of the *London Times*, draws the following picture of this celebrated river in its prosperous times:

"The vessel was nothing more than a vast wooden house, of three separate stories, floating on a pontoon which upheld the engine, with a dining-hall or saloon on the second story surrounded by sleeping-berths, and a nest of smaller rooms up-stairs; on the metal roof was a 'musical' instrument called a 'calliope,' played like a piano by keys, which acted on levers and valves, admitting steam into metal cups, where it produced the requisite notes—high, resonant, and not unpleasant at a moderate distance. It is 417 miles to Mobile, but at this season the steamer can maintain a good rate of speed, as there is very little cotton or cargo to be taken on board at the landings, and the stream is full.

"The river is about 200 yards broad, and of the color of chocolate and milk, with high, steep, wooded banks, rising so much above the surface of the stream, that a person on the upper deck of the towering Southern Republic, cannot get a glimpse of the fields and country beyond. High banks and bluffs spring up to the height of 150 or even 200 feet above the river, the breadth of which is so uniform as to give the Alabama the appearance of a canal, only relieved by sudden bends and rapid curves. The surface is covered with masses of drift wood, whole trees, and small islands of branches. Now and then a sharp, black, fang-like projection standing stiffly in the current gives warning of a snag, but the helmsman, who commands the whole course of the river, from an elevated house amidships on the upper deck, can see these in time; and at night pine boughs are lighted in iron cressets at the bows to illuminate the water.

"The captain, who was not particular whether his name was spelt Maher, or Meaher, or Meagher (*les trois se disent*), was evidently a character—perhaps a good one. One with a grey eye full of cunning and of some humor, strongly-marked features, and a very Celtic mouth of the Kerry type. He soon attached himself to me, and favored me with some wonderful yarns, which I hope he was not foolish enough to think I believed. One relating to a wholesale destruction and massacre of Indians he narrated with evident gusto. Pointing to one of the bluffs, he said that some thirty years ago the whole of the Indians in the district being surrounded by the whites, betook themselves to that spot, and remained there without any



A BLUFF ON THE ALABAMA RIVER.

means of escape, till they were quite starved out. So they sent down to know if the whites would let them go, and it was agreed that they should be permitted to move down the river in boats. When the day came, and they were all afloat, the whites anticipated the boat-massacre of Nana Sahib at Cawnpore, and destroyed the helpless red-skins. Many hundreds thus perished, and the whole affair was very much approved of.

“The value of land on the sides of this river is great, as it yields nine to eleven bales of cotton to the acre—worth 10*l*. a bale at present prices. The only evidences of this wealth to be seen by us consisted of the cotton sheds on the top of the banks, and slides of timber, with steps at each side down to the landings, so constructed that the cotton bales could be shot down on board the vessel. These shoots and staircases are generally protected by a roof of planks, and lead to unknown regions inhabited by niggers and their masters, the latter all talking politics. And so they talk through the glimmering of bad cigars for hours.

“The management of the boat is dexterous,—as she approaches the landing-place, the helm is put hard over, to the screaming of the steam-pipe, and the wild strains of ‘Dixie’ floating out of the throats of the calliope, and as the engines are detached, one wheel is worked forward, and the other backs water, so she soon turns head up stream, and is then gently paddled up to the river bank, to which she is just kept up by steam—the plank is run ashore, and the few passengers who are coming in or out are lighted on their way by the flames of pine in an iron basket, swinging above the bow by a long pole. Then

we see them vanishing into black darkness up the steps, or coming down clearer and clearer till they stand in the full blaze of the beacon, which casts dark shadows on the yellow water. The air is glistening with fire-flies, which dot the darkness with specks and points of flame, just as sparks fly through the embers of tinder or half-burned paper.

"Some of the landings were by far more important than others. There were some, for example, where an iron railroad was worked down the bank by windlasses for hoisting up goods; others where the negroes, half-naked, leaped ashore, and rushing at piles of fire-wood, tossed them on board to feed the engine, which, all uncovered and open to the lower deck, lighted up the darkness by the glare from the stoke-holes, which cried forever 'Give, give!' as the negroes ceaselessly thrust the pine-beams into their hungry maws. I could understand how easily a steamer can 'burn up,' and how hopeless escape would be under such circumstances. The whole framework of the vessel is of the lightest resinous pine, so raw that the turpentine oozes out through the paint; the hull is a mere shell. If the vessel once caught fire, all that could be done would be to turn her round, and run her to the bank, in the hope of holding there long enough to enable the people to escape into the trees; but if she were not near a landing, many must be lost; as the bank is steep down, the vessel cannot be run aground; and in some places the trees are in eight or ten feet of water. A few minutes would suffice to set the vessel in a blaze from stem to stern; and if there were cotton on board, the bales would burn almost like powder. The scene at each landing was repeated, with few variations, ten times till we reached Selma, 110 miles distance, at 11.30 at night.

"Selma, which is connected with the Tennessee and Mississippi rivers by railroad, is built upon a steep, lofty bluff, and the lights in the windows, and the lofty hotels above us, put me in mind of the old town of Edinburgh, seen from Princes Street. Beside us there was a huge storied wharf, so that our passengers could step on shore from any deck they pleased.

"The cabin of one of these steamers, in the month of May, is not favorable to sleep. The wooden beams of the engines creak and scream 'consumedly,' and the great engines themselves throb as if they would break through their thin, pulse covers of pine,—and the whistle sounds, and the calliope shrieks out 'Dixie' incessantly. So, when I was up and dressed, breakfast was over, and I had an opportunity of seeing the slaves on board, male and female, acting as stewards and stew-

ardesses, at their morning meal, which they took with much good spirits and decorum. They were nicely dressed—clean and neat. I was forced to admit to myself that their Ashantee grandsires and grandmothers, or their Kroo and Dahomey progenitors, were certainly less comfortable and well clad, and that these slaves had other social advantages, though I could not recognize the force of the Bishop of Georgia's assertion, that from slavery must come the sole hope of, and machinery for, the evangelization of Africa. I confess I would not give much for the influence of the stewards and stewardesses in Christianizing the blacks.

"The river, the scenery, and the scenes were just the same as yesterday's—high banks, cotton slides, wooding-stations, cane-brakes—and a very miserable negro population, if the specimens of women and children at the landings fairly represented the mass of the slaves. They were in strong contrast to the comfortable, well-dressed domestic slaves on board, and it can well be imagined there is a wide difference between the classes, and that those condemned to work in the open fields must suffer exceedingly."

The Tombigbee River, or, as it is familiarly called by the natives, the *Bigbee*, rises in Tishomingo county, in the extreme northeast of the State of Mississippi, and flows southward to Columbus, in that State, where it turns to the east, enters the State of Alabama, and flows southeast to Demopolis, where it receives the waters of the Black Warrior, after which it flows south into the Alabama River, 45 miles north of Mobile. It is 450 miles long, and is navigable for steamers to Columbus, Miss., 366 miles from Mobile. Flat-bottomed steamboats can ascend to Aberdeen, 40 or 50 miles above Columbus. The Tombigbee flows through a fine, fertile country, and its banks are lined with cotton plantations. Its principal branch, the Black Warrior, extends into the northeast part of the State, and is navigable for 150 miles, to Tuscaloosa, 305 miles from its mouth. It flows through a country rich in mineral resources. *The Tennessee River* has 130 miles of its course in Alabama, flowing westward across the northern part of the State. It will be described in another chapter.

Mobile Bay divides the extreme southwest part of the State in half. It extends southward from the mouth of the Mobile River to the Gulf, with which it communicates by two channels separated by Dauphin Island. It is 35 miles long, and from 3 to 15 miles wide. It was the scene of a desperate naval battle between the Federal and Confederate fleets, in which the latter was destroyed by Admiral

Farragut. It communicates with Mississippi Sound on the west, and, in connection with that body of water, which is protected from the waves of the Gulf by a chain of low, sandy islands, furnishes an inner and safe water route from Mobile to Lake Pontchartrain and New Orleans.

SOIL, CLIMATE, MINERALS, PRODUCTS, AND MANUFACTURES.

"The soil varies with the geographical locality and elevation. The mountain region of the north is well suited to grazing and stock-raising, and is interspersed with valleys of excellent soil. The undulating surface of the central portion is well watered, and, especially in the river bottoms, highly charged with fertilizing elements. The valley of the Alabama is one of the richest on the continent. The removal of the canebrakes of Marengo and Greene counties, has disclosed soil of surpassing quality. Toward the coast the vegetation becomes decidedly tropical. Cotton is the great staple, but sugar-cane is cultivated on the neck between Mississippi and Florida, and indigo has been produced in considerable quantities. Oaks in great variety, poplars, hickories, chestnuts, and mulberries, cover the northern and central parts, while in the south the pine, cypress, and loblolly are the prevailing species.

"The climate varies with the latitude, approaching within seven degrees of the tropics. The southern coast is strongly assimilated to the torrid zone in its temperature. The nights, however, are alleviated, even in the hottest weather, by the Gulf breezes. During the coldest seasons the rivers, even in the north, are seldom frozen, and the general winter temperature of the State is very mild. The low lands near the rivers are malarious, but the State generally is remarkable for salubrity.

"The agricultural statistics of 1860 disclose an advance, in ten years, of fifty per cent. in the amount of land brought under cultivation, and of nearly two hundred per cent. in the value of farms and farm implements.

"Live stock presents some enlargement of aggregate numbers, and more than doubles in value. Animal products, such as butter, cheese, wool, honey, and slaughtered animals, have increased fifty per cent. Cereals, tobacco, cotton, potatoes, and hay show like increment. Market garden products nearly double in value, while orchard products increase nearly fifteen fold. Like the neighboring Gulf States,

an injudicious cultivation of cotton, tobacco, and other heavy staples, has somewhat exhausted the fertility of portions of the land. Tillage and rotation of crops will remedy the mischief and restore the elements of productiveness. The agricultural development of Alabama awaits the final adjustment of the system of labor, the State possessing elements promising a bright future.

"The mineral resources of Alabama are sufficiently known to indicate their abundance and variety. The central region is underlaid by vast beds of iron ore, alternating with thick coal measures of great extent. The juxtaposition of these minerals favors mining operations and the processes of preparing iron for market. Lead, manganese, ochres, and marbles, are found in different localities, and even gold is reported. Sulphur and chalybeate springs are of frequent occurrence.

"The returns of 1870 show 2188 manufacturing establishments, with capital of \$5,714,032, producing articles valued at \$13,040,644, at an outlay for labor and raw material of \$9,280,805; the margin of profits was \$3,759,839, or over 50 per cent. on the capital invested. A new era in manufacturing enterprise may be expected in the reorganization of labor now in progress in this and other States, in which this great industrial interest will find its true position and influence in the social system."*

In 1869 there were 6,385,724 acres of improved land in Alabama. In the same year the agricultural statistics were as follows :

Bales of cotton,	510,000
Pounds of rice (estimated),	300,000
Bushels of wheat,	930,000
" Indian corn,	30,200,000
" peas and beans,	65,780
" sweet potatoes (estimated),	5,000,000
" oats,	567,000
Tons of hay,	68,000
Pounds of butter,	6,028,478
Number of horses,	165,063
" mules and asses,	140,687
" milch cows,	270,537
" sheep,	680,960
" swine,	2,500,000
" young cattle,	600,347
Value of domestic animals,	\$49,111,911

* Report of the General Land Office.

COMMERCE.

Alabama, having 1500 miles of river navigation, and one of the best harbors on the Gulf (Mobile), possesses considerable commerce. The export of cotton and lumber is very large. In 1860 the total value of the exports of the State was \$38,670,183 (making Alabama the third State in the Union as regards the value of its exports that year), and that of the imports, \$1,050,310.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In 1872 there were 1671 miles of completed railroads in Alabama, constructed at a cost of about \$40,000,000. The capital and the principal towns are connected with each other, and with all parts of the Union. The great railroad route between Memphis and the Eastern States extends across the northern part of the State, and there is a main route direct from Mobile to the Ohio River. The roads of the State were almost destroyed during the war, but are slowly regaining their former prosperity.

EDUCATION.

Alabama was one of the most enterprising States in the South in the cause of education previous to the war. In 1870 the State contained 9 colleges, with about 1000 students; 2812 public schools, with about 62,000 pupils; and 148 academies and other schools, with about 10,000 pupils.

The University of Alabama is located near Tuscaloosa. It was a flourishing institution previous to the war, and held a high rank amongst the colleges of the country. Its buildings were destroyed by fire in 1865. Measures were at once taken to restore them upon a larger and more perfect plan.

The schools of the State were generally closed by the war, many of them having been destroyed during the struggle. The new Constitution places the educational system of the State in the hands of a State Board of Education, consisting of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, the Governor of the State, who is a member *ex officio*, and two members from each Congressional District. They also constitute a Board of Regents of the State University. The Board meets annually at Montgomery, at the opening of the session of the Legislature, and sits for the transaction of business for a period not to exceed 20 days. The Board is required to establish one or

more free public schools in each school district. A permanent school fund is established, and the Legislature is required to levy taxes for the support of the public schools.

In 1860 the State contained 395 libraries, with 13,050 volumes.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The State Penitentiary is located at Wetumpka, and contains about 200 prisoners, three-fourths of whom are negroes. The penitentiary is let out to contractors, and is self-supporting. The convicts are put to work, outside the prison, on railroads, and in the iron and coal mines, a guard being kept over them.

The Insane Hospital is at Tuscaloosa. It was established in 1852, and opened for the reception of patients in July, 1861. It is an excellent institution, is well managed, and is prosperous. In 1866 there were 151 patients under treatment here. Those who are able to pay their expenses are charged a moderate sum. The institution will accommodate 350 patients.

The Institution for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind is at Talladega. It contains 40 pupils, who are being instructed in the various branches of a good education.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1860 there were 1875 churches in the State, but many of these were destroyed during the war.

FINANCES.

The total bonded debt of the State in July, 1874, was \$10,452,593. The receipts of the Treasury for the fiscal year ending September 30th, 1874, were \$1,870,757, and the expenditures \$1,624,363.

There were 2 National Banks in the State, with a capital of \$500,000, in 1868.

GOVERNMENT.

The present Constitution of the State was adopted by the people in February, 1868. Every male citizen, 21 years old, who has resided in the State six months, and has taken the oath to support the Constitution and laws of the United States, and of Alabama, are entitled to vote at the elections.

The Government is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor,

Secretary of State, Treasurer and Receiver-General, Auditor and Attorney General, and a General Assembly, consisting of a Senate and House of Representatives. The Executive officers are elected by the people, and all except the Auditor, who is chosen for four years, hold office for two years.

The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court, Circuit Courts, Chancery Courts, Courts of Probate, and such inferior courts as the General Assembly may see fit to establish. The Supreme Court consists of three judges, and has appellate jurisdiction only. All the judges in this State are chosen by the people.

For purposes of government the State is divided into 52 counties.

The seat of Government is at Montgomery.

HISTORY.

The word ALABAMA is an Indian expression, signifying, "Here we rest." The first white man who entered the State was Fernando de Soto, who traversed it in 1540, defeating the Indians who sought to oppose his progress in several severe battles. He found the savages less barbarous and more civilized in this part of the country than in the other sections visited by him. He crossed the State from the northeastern part to Maubila, said to have occupied the present site of Choctaw Bluff, just above the confluence of the Tombigbee and Alabama rivers. "This place consisted of eighty handsome houses, each sufficiently capacious to contain a thousand men. They were encompassed by a high wall, made of immense trunks of trees, set deep in the ground and close together, strengthened with cross-timbers and interwoven with large vines." After De Soto's arrival in the town, he and his followers were treacherously attacked by the Indians to the number of ten thousand. A battle ensued, which lasted nine hours, and resulted in the destruction of six thousand Indians and the town of Maubila. The Spaniards suffered terribly, and lost eighty men, forty-five horses, and all their baggage and camp equipage. After this De Soto proceeded northward to the Mississippi River.

In 1702, Bienville, the French Governor of Louisiana, entered Mobile Bay, and built a fort and trading-post at the mouth of Dog River. He called the post Fort St. Louis de la Mobile. This was for nine years the seat of government, but in 1711, the French ascended to the head of the bay, and founded the present city of Mobile. Bienville made treaties of friendship and alliance with the

neighboring Indian tribes, and for awhile the colony prospered, but finally the colonists became so much harassed by the English, who incited the Indians against them, that they abandoned Mobile. Negro slaves were first brought into the colony by three French ships of war, in 1721.

The treaty of 1783 surrendered the French possessions in Alabama to Great Britain.

“George Johnson, the first British Governor, organized a military government, garrisoned the fort at Mobile, and that of Toulouse, up the Coosa. The first English inhabitants of Mobile died in great numbers, from habits of intemperance, exposure, and contagious disorders, introduced by the military. The exports of Mobile, in 1772, were indigo, raw hides, corn, cattle, tallow, rice, pitch, bear’s oil, lumber, fish, etc. Cotton was cultivated in small quantities. The charter granted to Georgia comprised within its limits all the territory westward to the Mississippi. That State, considering its title to these lands as perfect, made grants to various companies, for the purpose of settlement. Two sets of these, known as the ‘*Yazoo Grants*,’ have acquired a celebrity in history. By the first, five millions of acres in Mississippi were granted to the South Carolina Yazoo Company; seven millions to the Virginia Yazoo Company; and 3,500,000 acres in Alabama to the Tennessee Company. The United States authorities opposed these grants, and the several companies having failed to pay the purchase money, Georgia rescinded her patents. Several years afterwards, Georgia made other and more considerable grants. These sales raised a storm throughout the country; they were denounced by General Washington, in his message to Congress, and, eventually, they were declared null and void.

“Alabama, at this period, was almost entirely in the occupation of the natives. There was a garrison of Spanish troops at Mobile, and also at St. Stephens, on the Tombigbee, with trading-posts upon the Oconee, and on other points in the south and west. The whole country west of the present limits of Georgia, to the Mississippi, was now purchased by the United States, and, in 1817, was erected into the ‘*Mississippi Territory*.’ Fort Stoddard was built near the confluence of the Alabama and Tombigbee, and the county of Washington laid out, embracing a space out of which 20 counties in Alabama and 12 in Mississippi have since been made.

“At the period of the second war with Great Britain, Alabama was a theatre of Indian warfare, as a great part of the State was then

inhabited by a number of tribes of Indians, of whom the Creeks were the principal. In 1812, the Creeks having been stirred up to war by Tecumseh, the celebrated Shawnee warrior, commenced hostile operations. In August, they fell on Fort Mimms; the garrison made a desperate resistance, but out of three hundred men, women, and children, only seventeen survived the massacre. The adjoining States were now roused to action. In November, General Jackson, assisted by Generals Coffee, Floyd, and Claiborne, entered the Indian country, and defeated the Indians at Talladega, where 290 of their warriors were slain. In November, General Floyd attacked the Creeks on their sacred ground, at Autossee. Four hundred of their houses were burned, and 200 of their bravest men were killed, among whom were the kings of Autossee and Tallahassee.

"The last stand of the Creeks was at Tohopeka, a place called the '*Horse-Shoe Bend*.' Here the Indians fought desperately, but were entirely defeated with the loss of nearly 600 men. The victory ended in the submission of the remaining warriors, and in 1814, a treaty of peace was concluded, and the Creeks have now removed westward of the Mississippi. In 1816, a cession was obtained from the Indians of all the territory from the head waters of the Coosa westward to Cotton Gin Point, and to a point running thence to Caney Creek on the Tennessee. The territorial government being established, the seat of government was located at St. Stephens. William W. Bibb was appointed Governor, and the first legislature was convened in 1818.

"The floodgates of Virginia, the two Carolinas, Tennessee, Kentucky, and Georgia were now hoisted, and the mighty streams of emigration poured through them, spreading over the whole territory of Alabama. In 1819, Alabama was admitted into the Union as a sovereign State. The General Assembly convened at Huntsville, and W. W. Bibb was inaugurated Governor." *

The State grew rapidly in wealth and population. In 1860, it was the fourth State of the South in importance, and the second in the amount of cotton produced. Slavery was the basis of its agriculture.

On the 11th of January, 1861, the State seceded from the Union, and joined the Southern Confederacy. In the spring of 1862, after the fall of Fort Donnelson and Memphis, the northern part of the State became the scene of constant military operations, and continued

* Barber's History of all the Western States, p. 573.

to be torn by the two armies till near the close of the war. The losses in the upper counties were immense, and the central counties were frequently desolated by raiding parties. The forts (Gaines and Morgan) defending the entrance to Mobile Bay were besieged and taken by the United States forces in 1865, and in the same year the victory of Mobile Bay, the severest naval battle of the war, was won by the National forces under Admiral Farragut.

The Southern Congress first met at Montgomery, the capital of the State, and there organized the new Confederacy. Montgomery was the capital of the Confederacy until its transfer to Richmond in May, 1861.

After the close of the war a Provisional Government was established in Alabama, by the President of the United States. It was overturned by Congress, and in 1867 was included in the Third Military District. In November, 1867, a Convention met at Montgomery, and framed a State Constitution, which was ratified by the people on the 4th of February, 1868, and on the 25th of June, 1868, Congress readmitted the State into the Union.

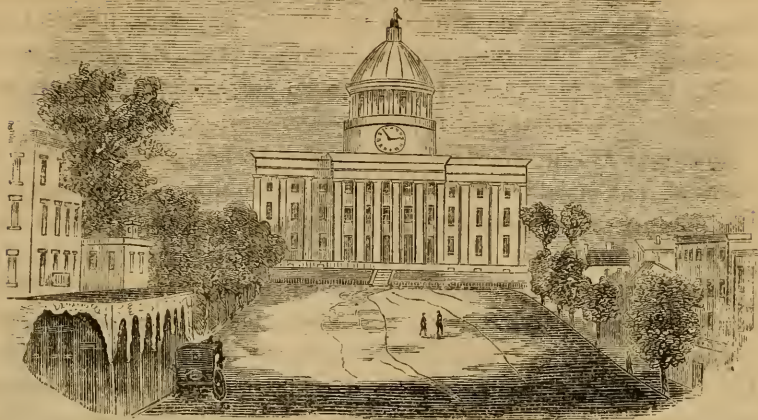
CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the principal cities and towns of the State are, Mobile, Tuscaloosa, Huntsville, Selma, Kingston, Tuscumbia, Decatur, Cahawba, and Marion

MONTGOMERY,

The capital and second city in the State, is situated in Montgomery county, on the east bank of the Alabama River. Latitude $32^{\circ} 21' N.$, longitude $86^{\circ} 25' W.$ It is 197 miles (by road) northeast of Mobile, or 331 miles by water, and 839 miles southwest of Washington. The city is located on rising ground, which increases in elevation as it recedes from the river. It is regularly laid out, is well built, and contains a number of handsome buildings.

The *State House* is the principal building. It stands on Capitol Hill, at the head of Market street, and though small in size, is an imposing structure. It was in this building that the Provisional Government of the Southern Confederacy was organized. The other prominent buildings are the churches, the Court House, the Theatre, and the Exchange Hotel. The schools of the city are numerous. The city contains many handsome private residences. It is lighted with



CAPITOL AT MONTGOMERY.

gas, and is supplied with pure water from artesian wells in the centre of the city.

Montgomery is a place of considerable trade. It has direct communication by railway with all parts of the State and Union, and has water transportation along the navigable portion of the Alabama and its tributaries. The Alabama is never closed by ice, and very rarely suffers from drought. Large steamers ply between Montgomery and Mobile during the entire year. Large steamers also ascend the Coosa River, as far as Wetumpka. About 75,000 bales of cotton are annually shipped from Montgomery.

Several newspapers are published in Montgomery. The city is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870 the population was 10,588.

Montgomery was settled about the year 1792. It was a place of considerable importance during Jackson's operations against the Creek Indians, in 1813-14. In 1847 it became the capital of the State. The Provisional Congress of the Confederate States met at Montgomery in February, 1861, and there, in the same month, Jefferson Davis was inaugurated "President of the Confederate States." The city continued to be the capital of the Confederacy until May, 1861. In April, 1865, the Confederates, upon evacuating the place, set fire to the cotton warehouses, and burned them together with 80,000 bales of cotton. A week later the arsenal, railway depots, and foundry were destroyed by the United States troops.

MOBILE,

The largest city of Alabama, and the metropolis of the the State, is situated on the west bank of the Mobile River, just above its entrance into Mobile Bay. It is 197 miles southwest of Montgomery, 30 miles from the Gulf of Mexico, 165 miles east by north from New Orleans, and 1033 miles southwest of Washington.

The city is built upon a level plain, about 15 feet above high water in the bay, and is laid off with tolerable regularity. The streets are wide, and in the business portion of the city are paved. They are shaded with fine trees. In this portion the city is compactly built. In the upper portion it is scattered over a great deal of ground. The general appearance of the city is handsome, though there are no very fine public buildings. The business houses are generally plain. The private residences of the city will compare favorably with anything in the Union. As a rule they stand in the midst of large grounds, and the orange and finer fruits form a prominent part of the foliage with which they are surrounded. Government street is the most attractive in the city, and is the favorite promenade.

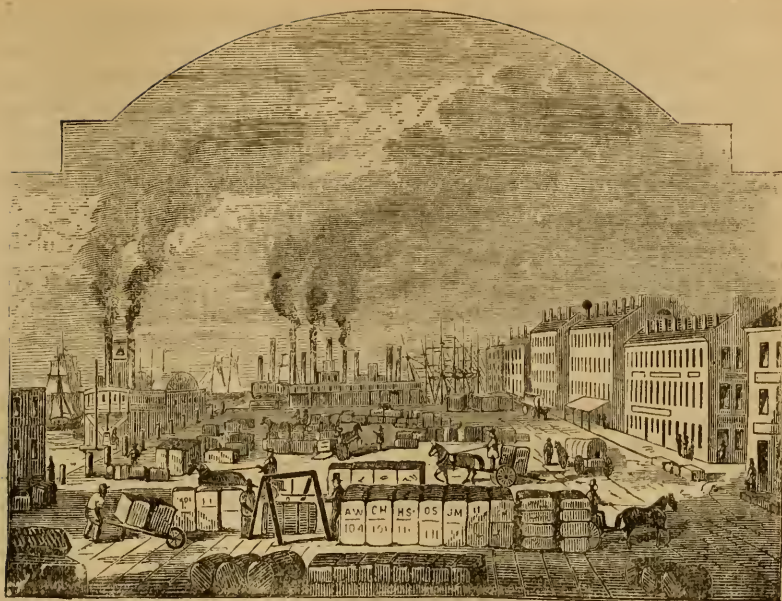
The principal public building is the *Custom House*, a showy edifice of white marble. The others, the *Municipal Buildings*, the *Theatre*, the *Markets* (the handsomest in the South), the *Odd Fellows'* and *Temperance Halls*, and the *Battle House*, the principal hotel.

The churches are numerous and handsome. The Benevolent Institutions are, the *Blind Asylum*, the *City Hospital*, the *Roman Catholic Male and Female Orphan Asylums*, the *Protestant Orphan Asylum*, the *United States Marine Hospital*, and several societies for the relief of the poor and suffering.

The schools of the city are excellent. There are 14 large public schools, and a number of private seminaries. The *Mobile College* is a flourishing institution. *Spring Hill College*, 6 miles from the city, is regarded as one of the schools of Mobile. It is controlled by the Roman Catholic Church.

The city is lighted with gas, and is supplied with spring water, brought from a distance of 2 miles in iron pipes. It possesses an efficient police force, and a steam fire engine department. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870 the population was 32,184.

The position of Mobile has made it a place of great commercial importance. It is the natural outlet of the great cotton country lying north of it, and watered by the Alabama and its tributaries. The



THE LANDING, MOBILE.

city extends along the river shore for more than two miles east and west. The bay is shallow and difficult of navigation, and it is dangerous for vessels drawing more than 7 feet of water to attempt to reach the city. Large vessels lie near the mouth of the bay, and their cargoes are sent down to them on lighters or schooners. Mobile is the second cotton port of the Union, ranking next to New Orleans in the amount of its shipments of this great staple. A large portion of its shipments are made direct to Europe. Previous to the civil war it exported annually about 632,000 bales of cotton. It is rapidly renewing its former importance. Considerable shipping is owned in the port. There is daily communication by steamboats with the towns on the Alabama and its tributaries, and with New Orleans by way of Lakes Borgne and Pontchartrain. A considerable trade is maintained by sailing vessels with the Atlantic and Gulf ports. The harbor is defended by Forts Morgan and Gaines.

Mobile was settled in 1702 by the French under Bienville, and was for many years the capital of the Colony of Louisiana. Its early history is very interesting, but must be passed over here. In 1723 the seat of government was removed to New Orleans. In 1763 Mobile, with all that portion of Louisiana lying east of the Mississippi, and

north of Bayou Iberville, Lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain, passed into the possession of Great Britain by the terms of the Treaty of Paris. In 1780 the fort and town were captured by the Spaniards, and in 1783 the occupancy of the place was confirmed to Spain by the cession to that Power of all the British possessions on the Gulf of Mexico. In April, 1813, the town was surrendered by the Spaniards to the United States forces under General Wilkinson, and since then it has remained in the possession of the Republic. In 1819 Mobile was incorporated as a city. It then contained a population of 800. During the civil war Mobile was one of the principal ports of the Confederates. It was blockaded by the United States forces during the war. In the spring of 1865 Forts Morgan and Gaines were reduced by the United States army, and the Confederate fleet, under Admiral Buchanan, was defeated and destroyed by the squadron of Admiral Farragut, in the desperate battle of Mobile Bay. These successes on the part of the United States forces resulted in their occupation of the city of Mobile.

MISCELLANY.

BATTLE OF THE HORSE-SHOE BEND.

The Creeks concentrated their forces at the great bend of the Tallapoosa, usually called *Horse-Shoe* by the whites, and *Tohopeka* by the Indians, a word in their language said to signify a horse-shoe. The peninsula formed by the bend contained about 100 acres, on which was a village of some 200 houses. About 1000 Indians, from the adjoining districts, had fortified themselves on the peninsula with great skill, having a formidable breastwork built of large logs. They had also an ample supply of provisions and ammunition.

On the 16th of March, 1814, General Jackson, having received considerable reinforcements of volunteers from Tennessee, and friendly Indians, left Fort Strother with his whole disposable force, amounting to about 3000 of every description, on an expedition against this assemblage of Indians. He proceeded down the Coosa 60 miles to the mouth of Cedar Creek, where he established a post called Fort Williams, and proceeded on the 24th across the ridge of land dividing the waters of the Coosa from the Tallapoosa; and arrived at the great bend on the morning of the 27th, having the three preceding days opened a passage through the wilderness of 52 miles. On the 26th, he passed the battle ground of the 22d of January, and left it 3 miles in his rear. General Coffee was detached, with 700 cavalry and mounted gunmen, and 600 friendly Indians, to cross the river below the bend, secure the opposite banks, and prevent escape. Having crossed at the Little Island ford, 3 miles below the bend, his Indians were ordered silently to approach and line the banks of the river, while the mounted men occupied the adjoining heights, to guard against reinforcements, which might be expected from the Oakfusky towns, 8 miles below. Lieutenant Bean, at the same time, was ordered to occupy Little Island, at the fording place, to secure any that might attempt to escape in that direction. In the meantime, General Jackson,

with the artillery and infantry, moved on in slow and regular order to the isthmus, and planted his guns on an eminence 150 yards in front of the breastwork. On perceiving that General Coffee had completed his arrangements below, he opened a fire upon the fortification, but found he could make no other impression with his artillery than boring shot-holes through the logs. General Coffee's Indians, on the bank, hearing the roaring of the cannon in front, and observing considerable confusion on the peninsula, supposing the battle to be nearly won, crossed over and set fire to the village, and attacked the Creeks in the rear. At this moment General Jackson ordered an assault upon the works in front. The regular troops, led by Colonel Williams, accompanied by a part of the militia of General Dougherty's brigade, led on by Colonel Russell, presently got possession of a part of the works, amid a tremendous fire from behind them. The advance guard was led by Colonel Sisler, and the left extremity of the line by Captain Gordon of the spies, and Captain M'Marry, of General Johnson's brigade of West Tennessee militia. The battle for a short time was obstinate, and fought musket to musket through the port-holes; when the assailants succeeded in getting possession of the opposite side of the works, and the contest ended. The Creeks were entirely routed, and the whole margin of the river strewn with the slain. The troops under General Jackson, and General Coffee's Indians, who had crossed over into the peninsula, continued the work of destruction as long as there was a Creek to be found. General Coffee, on seeing his Indians crossing over, had ordered their places to be supplied on the bank by his riflemen; and every Indian that attempted to escape by swimming the river, or crossing the Little Island below, was met and slain by General Coffee's troops. The battle, as long as any appearance of resistance remained, lasted five hours; the slaughter continued until dark, and was renewed the next morning, when 16 more of the unfortunate savages were hunted out of their hiding places and slain. Five hundred and fifty-seven warriors were found dead on the peninsula; among whom was their famous prophet Manahell, and two others, the principal instigators of the war; 250 more were estimated to have been killed in crossing the river, and at other places, which were not found. General Jackson's loss was 26 white men, and 23 Indians, killed; and 107 white men, and 47 Indians, wounded.

This decisive victory put an end to the Creek war. In the short period of five months, from the 1st of November to the 1st of April, 2000 of their warriors, among whom were their principal prophets and kings, had been slain, most of their towns and villages burned, and the strong places in their territory occupied by the United States troops. After this battle, the miserable remnant of the hostile tribes submitted. Weatherford, the principal surviving chief and prophet, who led the Indians at Fort Mimms, accompanied his surrender with this address to General Jackson:

"I fought at Fort Mimms—I fought the Georgia army—I did you all the injury I could. Had I been supported as I was promised, I would have done you more. But my warriors are all killed. I can fight no longer. I look back with sorrow that I have brought destruction upon my nation. I am now in your power. Do with me as you please. I am a soldier."

MISSISSIPPI.

Area,	47,156 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	791,305
(Whites, 353,901 ; Negroes, 437,404.)	
Population in 1870,	827,992

THE State of Mississippi is situated between $30^{\circ} 20'$ and 35° N. latitude, and between $88^{\circ} 12'$ and $91^{\circ} 40'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Tennessee, on the east by Alabama, on the south by the Gulf of Mexico and Louisiana, and on the west by Louisiana and Arkansas, from which it is separated by the Mississippi River. Its extreme length, from north to south, is about 400 miles, and its average width, from east to west, about 150 miles.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The northern and eastern sections of the State constitute a fine rolling country, which, extending westward, approaches the Mississippi in many parts in high bluffs or in high hills. The southern part of the State is level. Much of the State is marshy, while the country along the Yazoo and Sunflower rivers is almost a continuous swamp, and exceedingly fertile. The northeastern counties are fine prairie land, and the southeastern covered with a dense growth of pine, known as the "Piney Woods."

The Mississippi River, already described, washes the entire western shore of the State. Its tributaries in this State are, beginning on the north, the Yazoo, Big Black, and Homochito, and a number of small streams. *The Yazoo* is formed by the confluence of the Tallahatchie and Yallobusha rivers, at Leflore, in Carroll county. The general direction of the main stream and its branches is southwest. The former

flows into the Mississippi about twelve miles above Vicksburg. It is 290 miles long, and flows through a country remarkable for its fertility. It is navigable for its entire length for steamers, at all seasons of the year. It is very tortuous in its course, fully equalling the Mississippi in this respect. Its principal branch, the Tallahatchie, is said to be as long as the Yazoo, and is quite as serpentine in its course. It is navigable for 100 miles. *The Sunflower River* flows into the Yazoo near its mouth. *The Big Black River* rises in Choctaw county, flows southwest for 200 miles, and empties into the Mississippi at Grand Gulf. It is navigable for 50 miles. The country along its banks is highly fertile and is lined with fine cotton plantations, but is sickly. *The Pearl River* rises in the central part of the State and flows southwest to Jackson, the capital of the State, where it changes its course, and flows southeast, through Lake Borgne, into the Gulf of Mexico. It forms the west boundary between the extreme southern part of Mississippi and Louisiana. It is 250 miles long, and is only navigable at high water, in consequence of being obstructed by numerous sand-bars and accumulations of drift-wood. The southeast part of the State is watered by the *Pascagoula*, which is formed by the union of the Chickasawbay and Leaf rivers, which in their turn receive the waters of numerous small streams. Light-draft steamers ascend the Pascagoula and the Leaf to a point 100 miles from the Gulf of Mexico.

A chain of low islands extending along the southern coast, at some distance from the mainland, encloses a number of small sounds, of which Mississippi Sound and Biloxi Bay are the principal. Lake Borgne lies partly in this State, and receives the waters of the Pearl River.

CLIMATE.

The climate varies in the northern and southern parts of the State. In the former it is mild and pleasant in the summer, but severer in winter than the climate of the northeastern part of South Carolina. The writer can testify that northern Mississippi in winter deserves any title rather than that of the "Sunny South." Fine apples and wheat are raised here. The climate of the southern part is hot and trying. Tropical fruits ripen thoroughly here. The fig and the orange grow to great perfection without requiring shelter. Cotton and Indian corn are raised here.



PICKING COTTON.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The northeast part of the State, as we have said, is occupied by fine prairie lands. Here the soil consists of a rich black loam. In the southeast it is sandy. Fruits flourish here. The best lands lie between the Tennessee border and the Big Black River, particularly between the Yazoo and its tributaries and the Mississippi.

Previous to the war cotton was the great staple, this State producing more of that article than any other member of the Union. The Report of the United States Bureau of Agriculture for March, 1868, thus speaks of the capacity of the State for producing other staples:

"In the rich alluvial soils of Washington county, 'wheat was grown during the war, and its yield was thirty bushels per acre.' White and red varieties have been grown to some extent in Yazoo; white preferred, as less liable to rust. In Leake, a preference is given

to the hardier red wheat. Red wheat is preferred in Winston. In Pike, little attention is paid to wheat, 'though the grain is plump and the bran is thinner than in more northern latitudes.' In De Soto, 'wheat has never been to any extent an article made for market, though the county has two or three times before 1860 sent the first to the St. Louis market. In 1860, fully half the flour consumed was grown here; in 1866 and 1867, very little was grown, though the land in wheat in 1867 yielded a good crop. A very large breadth of land is now in wheat.' The usual time of sowing is between the 15th of October and first of November, though many sow in the early part of October, and some in the latter portion of September. The time of harvesting is generally the last week in May; early varieties, with good season, are cut somewhat earlier. The length of the season is variously stated, from six to twelve months. The fact is, that stock are never fed to any appreciable extent, with the exception of horses and mules. Sheep and cattle pick up their living in the winter months, as in summer. It is true that sheep and horned stock, as well as horses, are sometimes treated to occasional winter pasturage upon rye or barley sown in September. With this help it is possible to keep large flocks of sheep, with little expense; and other kinds of farm animals may be brought through the winter in good condition without other feed. The price of pasturage is estimated at very low rates; in some counties as low as \$2 or \$3 per season, while others range higher, up to \$1 per month. Figs and peaches everywhere abound, growing rapidly and bearing profusely and surely. Until lately no profit was derived from them, and now only on the line of railroad running lengthwise through the State. Formerly peaches were pecuniarily profitable only in port-making. The crop is very sure in the southern part of the State; in the northern, it is sometimes injured by frosts. Apples do pretty well, if kinds are selected which suit the climate. Small fruits produce in great abundance. The pear is apt to blight, but is favorably mentioned in some localities. Grapes do well in the poorest soils, and are free from disease."

Since the war much of the land that was formerly planted in cotton has been devoted to raising wheat and corn.

In 1869 there were 5,065,755 acres of cultivated land in Mississippi. The other agricultural returns for the same year were as follows:

Bales of cotton,	725,000
Pounds of rice (estimated),	400,000

Bushels of wheat,	267,000
“ Indian corn,	30,000,000
“ peas and beans,	1,988,806
“ sweet potatoes (estimated),	4,500,000
Tons of hay,	40,000
Pounds of butter,	5,006,610
Number of horses,	117,870
“ mules and asses,	121,960
“ milch cows,	300,101
“ sheep,	500,340
“ swine,	1,750,101
“ young cattle,	600,708
Value of domestic animals,	\$49,891,692

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

Mississippi has no foreign commerce of her own. Her cotton is exported from Mobile and New Orleans, and her imports are drawn mainly through New York and New Orleans. Lumber and naval stores are becoming prominent articles of export.

But little attention is paid to manufactures, agriculture being the principal pursuit of the people. In 1870 the State contained 1731 manufacturing establishments, employing a capital of \$4,501,714, and yielding an annual product of \$8,154,758. Of the above 265 were saw-mills, producing \$2,160,677 worth of lumber.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In 1872 there were in Mississippi 900 miles of completed railroads, constructed at a cost of about \$28,000,000. The main line of travel from New York to New Orleans, and from the west to that city, passes through the centre of the State from the Tennessee line southward into Louisiana. Another line, from Vicksburg to the Alabama line, crosses the centre of the State, from west to east, and the road from Mobile to the Ohio River, extends from north to south, through almost the entire eastern tier of counties, while the northeast county is crossed by the great line from Memphis to Chattanooga, Tenn., and the Atlantic States. These roads place all points of the State within rapid communication with each other, and with the whole country.

EDUCATION.

In 1870, there were in the State, 19 colleges, with over 1300 students; and 1545 other schools, with over 40,000 pupils. The school system of this State was one of the best in the South, but was entirely broken up by the civil war.

The new Constitution makes a liberal provision for the cause of education. The school system is placed under the control of a State Superintendent and a Board of Education, who nominate to the State Senate suitable persons for the office of County Superintendent. Each county constitutes a separate school district, also each city of more than 5000 inhabitants. The State Board and Superintendent have power to prescribe the course of studies for the schools. The immediate management of the schools is confided to local Boards of School Directors appointed by the County Superintendents. The Constitution requires an annual taxation by the County Supervisors upon the taxable property of each district, of not more than ten mills on the dollar, for school-house purposes, and of not more than five mills on the dollar for a teachers' fund. It is hoped that the new system will be fairly inaugurated within the present year.

The University of Mississippi, at Oxford, was the principal institution of learning in the State previous to the war, and held a deservedly high rank in the South. It was closed during the war, but has since resumed its exercises with success.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The *State Asylum for the Blind* contains about 21 pupils, and is located at Jackson. The *Insane Hospital* is at the same place, and contains about 150 patients. The Deaf and Dumb of the State have been for some years cared for at the Louisiana Asylum at Baton Rouge. The *State Penitentiary*, at Jackson, contains at present about 350 prisoners, and is in a rather embarrassed condition.

FINANCES.

In 1874 the public debt due by the State amounted to \$3,558,629. The total receipts of the Treasury of the State were \$2,255,824, of which \$795,936 was in uncurrent funds. The disbursements for the same period were \$1,238,140.

GOVERNMENT.

The State election, under the provisions of the Reconstruction Act, took place on the 30th of November, and the 1st of December, 1869, and at this election the new Constitution of the State was ratified by the people. On the 17th of February, 1870, the State was readmitted into the Union.

The State Government is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Gov-

ernor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Auditor of Public Accounts, and Attorney-General, and a Legislature consisting of a Senate of 33 members, and a House of Representatives of 107 members.

By the terms of the Constitution, all male inhabitants of this State, except idiots and insane persons, and Indians not taxed, citizens of the United States, or naturalized, 21 years of age, who have resided in the State six months, and in the county one month, are entitled to vote at the elections, unless disqualified by reason of crime.

There is a Supreme Court, consisting of three judges appointed by the Governor. These elect one of their number to the office of Chief Justice. It is a high court of errors and appeals. The State is divided into 15 districts, each possessing its Circuit Court presided over by a judge, and having criminal jurisdiction and jurisdiction in civil suits at common law. The judges of these courts are prohibited from practising law in any of the State or United States courts during their terms of office. For the purposes of Chancery Courts, the State is divided into 20 districts, for each of which a Chancellor is to be appointed by the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. A Chancery Court is to be held in each county four times a year.

The seat of Government is located at Jackson.

HISTORY.

Fernando de Soto and his companions, who entered the State in 1540, were the first Europeans who trod the soil of Mississippi. At that time the present territory of the State was divided between the Choctaw, Chickasaw and Natchez Indians. La Salle descended the Mississippi River from the Illinois country to the Gulf in 1681, and in 1700, Iberville, the French Governor of Louisiana, planted a colony on Ship Island, on the Gulf coast, from which the settlement was removed to Biloxi on the mainland. In 1716, Bienville, then Governor of Louisiana, established a post on the Mississippi River, and called it *Fort Rosalie*. In 1700, Iberville had designated this spot as a good site for a town, and had called it *Rosalie*, in honor of Rosalie Countess of Pontchartrain, of France. The present city of Natchez occupies this site.

In 1729, the Natchez Indians, becoming alarmed at the growing power of the French, resolved to exterminate them. On the 28th of November, of this year, they fell upon the settlement at Fort Rosalie, and massacred the garrison and settlers, 700 in number. When the

news of this terrible tragedy reached New Orleans, Bienville resolved to retaliate severely upon the aggressors. He applied to the Chickasaws, the enemies of the Natchez, for assistance, and was furnished by them with 1600 warriors. With these and his own troops, Bienville besieged the Natchez in their fort, but they escaped under cover of the night, and fled west of the Mississippi. They were followed by the French and forced to surrender; after which, they were taken to New Orleans, and transported to the Island of St. Domingo, and sold as slaves. Being a small nation, these measures literally exterminated them.

It was well known to the French that the Chickasaws, a powerful tribe dwelling in the fertile regions of the upper Tombigbee, had incited the Natchez against them, and Bienville resolved to turn his arms against them. In 1736, he sailed from New Orleans to Mobile with a strong force of French troops and 1200 Choctaw warriors. Upon reaching Mobile, he ascended the Tombigbee River, in boats, for 500 miles, to the southeastern border of the present county of Pontotoc. The site of his landing is now known as Cotton Gin Port. The Chickasaw fort, a powerful stronghold, was about 25 miles from this point. Having taken measures to secure his boats, Bienville advanced against the enemy. He made a determined assault on the hostile fort, but was repulsed with a loss of 100 men, which so discouraged him that he dismissed the Choctaws with presents, threw his cannon in the Tombigbee, and reëmbarking in his boats, floated down the river to Mobile, whence he returned to New Orleans.

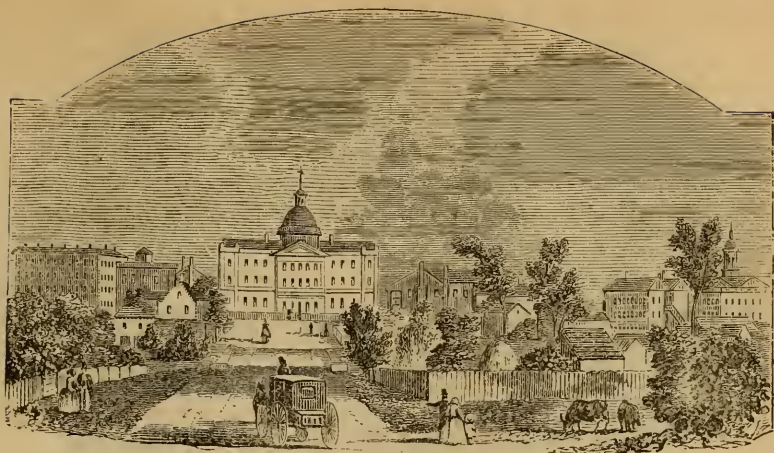
“One important part of the plan of the campaign against the Chickasaws was to have the coöperation of a force of French and Indians from Canada. D’Artagnette, the pride and flower of the French at the North, procured the aid of ‘*Chicago*,’ the Illinois chief from the shore of Lake Michigan. His lieutenant was the gallant *Vincennes*, from the settlement on the Wabash. These heroes came down the river unobserved to the last Chickasaw bluff, and from thence penetrated into the heart of the country. On the 10th of May they encamped, it is supposed, about six miles east of the present town of Pontotoc, near the appointed place of rendezvous with the force of Bienville. Having waited for some time in vain for intelligence from the chief commander, the Indian allies of D’Artagnette became impatient for war and plunder, and could not be restrained, when D’Artagnette consented to lead them to the attack. He drove the Chickasaws from two of their fortified villages, but was severely wounded in

his attack on the third. His allies, the red men of Illinois, dismayed at this check, fled precipitately, and D'Artaguette was left weltering in his blood. Vincennes, his lieutenant, and the Jesuit Senat, their spiritual guide and friend, refusing to fly, shared the captivity of their gallant leader. They were treated with great care and attention by the Chickasaws, who were in hopes of obtaining a great ransom from Bienville, then advancing into their country. After his retreat, the Chickasaws, despairing of receiving anything for their prisoners, tortured and burnt them over a slow fire, leaving but one alive to relate their fate to their countrymen."

In 1763 the French possessions east of the Mississippi, and the Spanish province of Florida, passed into the hands of the English. In 1783 the country north of the 31st parallel was included within the limits of the United States. The territory of Georgia extended under its charter to the Mississippi; and in 1795 was sold to the General Government by the Legislature of Georgia. In 1798 the territory of Mississippi was organized, and on the 10th of December, 1817 was admitted into the Union as a State.

On the 9th of January, 1861, the State seceded from the Union and joined the Southern Confederacy, of which Jefferson Davis, an eminent citizen of Mississippi, was chosen President. In 1862 the northern part of the State became the scene of military operations, and continued to be occupied at various times by the two armies until the close of the war. The bloody battles of Iuka, and Corinth, and a number of minor conflicts, were fought in this part of Mississippi. In 1862 the city of Vicksburg, on the Mississippi River, which was said to be the strongest place in the South, was attacked by the Federal fleet. From this time until its capture by General Grant in July, 1863, it was the object of the most persistent efforts of the United States forces. During the operations connected with the siege of this place, severe battles were fought at Jackson, Champion Hills, and other points back of the city. The State was traversed repeatedly by raiding parties of cavalry from the Union lines, which inflicted great damage upon it. The destruction of property caused by the war was immense. Industry of all kinds was paralyzed, and at the close of the struggle the state of affairs was made temporarily worse by the abolition of slavery, which threw the labor system into confusion.

Upon the return of peace a Provisional Government was established in the State by the President of the United States. It was repudiated and abolished by Congress, and in 1867 the State was made a part



JACKSON.

of the Fourth Military District. It remained subject to military rule until the close of the year 1869, when it was readmitted into the Union.

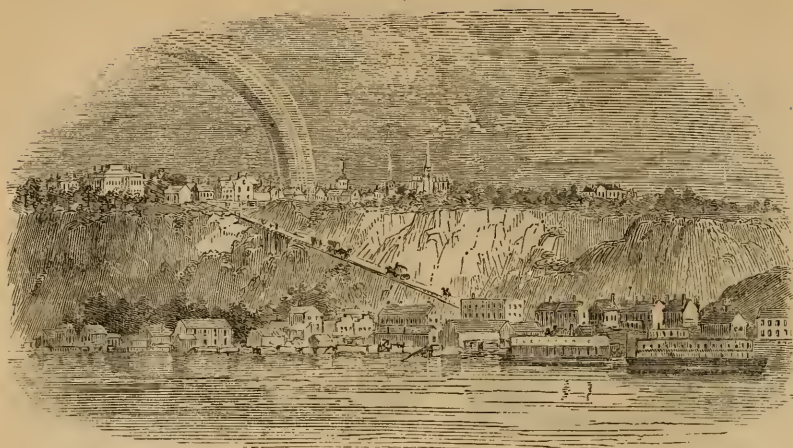
CITIES AND TOWNS.

The cities and towns, besides the capital, are, Vicksburg, Natchez, Columbus, Holly Springs, Grenada, Oxford, Canton, Raymond, Port Gibson, and Corinth. There are no large cities in Mississippi.

JACKSON,

The capital of the State, is situated in Hinds county, on the right bank of the Pearl River. Latitude, $32^{\circ} 23' N.$; longitude, $90^{\circ} 8' W.$ It is 45 miles east of Vicksburg, and 1010 miles southwest of Washington. It is built on a level plain, is regularly laid out, and contains some handsome buildings, but is indifferently built in the main. The *State House* is a handsome structure, as is also the *Governor's Mansion*. The other public buildings are, the *State Lunatic Asylum*, the *Penitentiary*, and the *United States Land Office*. It contains several churches and schools, and 3 newspaper offices, and is lighted with gas. In 1870 the population was 4234.

Jackson is the point of intersection of the railway line from the North and West with that from Vicksburg to Meridian, Mobile, etc., and previous to the war possessed a considerable trade, shipping annually about 30,000 bales of cotton. It is gradually recovering this



NATCHEZ.

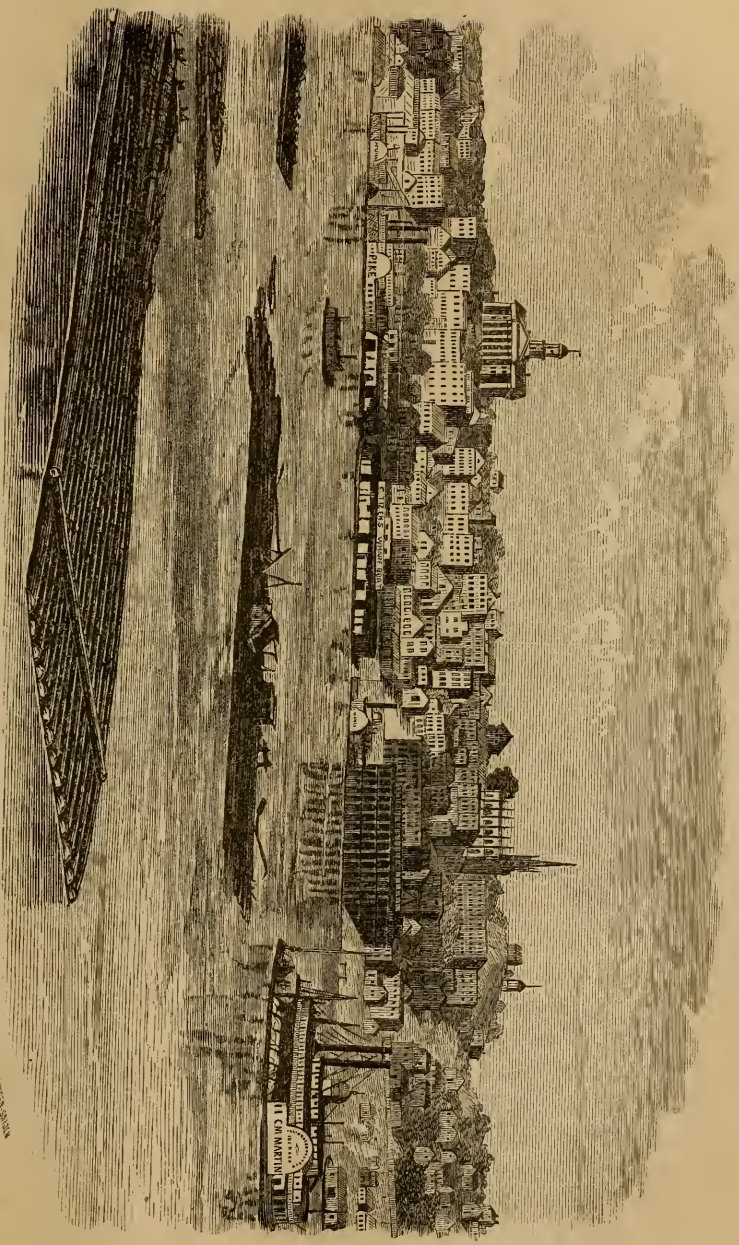
trade. The Pearl River is navigable from its mouth to the city for small steamers.

Jackson suffered severely from the war. It was twice captured by the Federal armies, and its streets were the scene of severe battles. The city and public buildings were greatly damaged by the effects of the cannonading and by fire.

NATCHEZ,

The second city in the State, is situated in Adams county, on the east bank of the Mississippi River, 100 miles southwest of Jackson, and 279 miles (by water) northwest of New Orleans. It is situated on a bluff, 200 feet in height, overlooking the river and the great cypress swamps of Louisiana. The business portion of the city is located along the river shore. This portion is known as Natchez-under-the-Hill, and it is here that the river trade, which is the principal source of the city's prosperity, is conducted. The retail stores and private residences are located on the bluff.

The city proper is regularly laid out and well built. The principal public buildings are handsome edifices. They are the *Court House*, *Orphan Asylum*, and *Masonic Hall*. The streets are wide, and are well shaded. The private residences are among the handsomest in the South, and are pleasantly situated in the midst of gardens adorned with flowers, orange trees, etc. There are 6 churches, a hospital, a number of schools, and 2 newspaper offices in the city.



VICKSBURG.

W. H. B. 1864



HAULING COTTON TO MARKET.

MISCELLANIES.

EXTERMINATION OF THE NATCHEZ INDIANS.

This remarkable tribe, the most civilized of all the original inhabitants of the States, dwelt in the vicinity of the present city of Natchez.

Their religion, in some respects, resembled that of the fire-worshippers of Persia. Fire was the emblem of their divinity; the sun was their god: their chiefs were called "suns," and their king was called the "Great Sun." In their principal temple a perpetual fire was kept burning by the ministering priest, who likewise offered sacrifices of the first fruits of the chase. In extreme cases, they offered sacrifices of infant children, to appease the wrath of the deity. When Iberville was there, one of the temples was struck by lightning and set on fire. The keeper of the fane solicited the squaws to throw their little ones into the fire to appease the angry divinity, and four infants were thus sacrificed before the French could prevail on them to desist from the horrid rites.

After Iberville reached the Natchez tribe, the Great Sun, or king of the confederacy, having heard of the approach of the French commandant, determined to pay him a visit in person. As he advanced to the quarters of Iberville, he was borne upon the shoulders of some of his men, and attended by a great retinue of his people. He bade Iberville a hearty welcome, and showed him the most marked attention and kindness during his stay. A treaty of friendship was concluded, with permission to build a fort and to establish a trading-post among them; which was, however, deferred for many years.

A few stragglers soon after took up their abode among the Natchez; but no regular settlement was made until 1716, when Bienville, Governor of Louisiana, erected Fort Rosalie, which is supposed to have stood near the eastern limit of the present city of Natchez.

Grand or Great Sun, the chief of the Natchez, was at first the friend of the whites, until the overbearing disposition of one man brought destruction on the whole colony. The residence of the Great Sun was a beautiful village, called the *White Apple*. This village spread over a space of nearly 3 miles in extent, and stood about 12 miles south of the fort, near the mouth of Second Creek, and 3 miles east of the Mississippi. M. de Chopart, the commandant, was guilty of great injustice toward the Indians, and went so far as to command the Great Sun to leave the village of his ancestors, as he wanted the ground for his own purposes. The Great Sun, finding Chopart deaf to all his entreaties, formed a plot to rid his country of the tyrant who oppressed them. Previous to the tragedy, the Sieur de Mace, ensign of the garrison, received advice of the intention of the Natchez, through a young Indian girl who loved him. She told him, crying, that her nation intended to massacre the French. Amazed at this story, he questioned his mistress. Her simple answers, and her tender tears, left him no room to doubt of the plot. He informed Chopart of it, who forthwith put him under arrest for giving a false alarm. The following is from "Monette's History of the Valley of the Mississippi: "

"At length the fatal day arrived. It was November 29th, 1729. Early in the morning Great Sun repaired, with a few chosen warriors, to Fort Rosalie, and all were well armed with knives and other concealed weapons.

"The company had recently sent up a large supply of powder and lead, and provisions for the use of the post. The Indians had recourse to stratagem to pro-

cure a supply of ammunition, pretending that they were preparing for a great hunting excursion. Before they set out, they wished to purchase a supply of ammunition, and they had brought corn and poultry to barter for powder and lead. Having placed the garrison off their guard, a number of Indians were permitted to enter the fort, and others were distributed about the company's warehouse. Upon a certain signal from the Great Sun, the Indians immediately drew their concealed weapons, and commenced the carnage by one simultaneous and furious massacre of the garrison, and all who were in and near the warehouse.

"Other parties, distributed through the contiguous settlements, carried on the bloody work in every house as soon as the smoke was seen to rise from the houses near the fort.

"The massacre commenced at 9 o'clock in the morning, and before noon the whole of the male population of the French colony on St. Catharine (consisting of about 700 souls) were sleeping the sleep of death. The slaves were spared for the service of the victors, and the females and children were reserved as prisoners of war. Chopart fell among the first victims; and, as the chiefs disdained to stain their hands with his despised blood, he was dispatched by the hand of a common Indian. Two mechanics, a tailor, and a carpenter were spared, because they might be useful to the Indians.

"While the massacre was progressing, the Great Sun seated himself in the spacious warehouse of the company, and, with apparent unconcern and complacency, sat and smoked his pipe while his warriors were depositing the heads of the French garrison in a pyramid at his feet. The head of Chopart was placed in the centre, surmounting those of his officers and soldiers. So soon as the warriors informed the Great Sun that the last Frenchman had ceased to live, he commanded the pillage to commence. The negro slaves were employed in bringing out the plunder for distribution. The powder and military stores were reserved for public use in future emergencies.

"While the ardent spirits remained, the day and the night alike presented one continued scene of savage triumph and drunken revelry. With horrid yells they spent their orgies in dancing over the mangled bodies of their enemies, which lay strewn in every quarter where they had fallen in the general carnage. Here, unburied, they remained a prey for dogs and hungry vultures. Every vestige of the houses and dwellings in all the settlements were reduced to ashes.

"Two soldiers only, who happened to be absent in the woods at the time of the massacre, escaped to bear the melancholy tidings to New Orleans. As they approached the fort and heard the deafening yells of the savages, and saw the columns of smoke and flame ascending from the buildings, they well judged the fate of their countrymen. They concealed themselves until they could procure a boat or canoe to descend the river to New Orleans, where they arrived a few days afterward, and told the sad story of the colony on the St. Catharine.

"The same fate was shared by the colony on the Yazoo, near Fort St. Peter, and by those on the Washita, at Sicily Island, and near the present town of Monroe. Dismay and terror were spread over every settlement in the province. New Orleans was filled with mourning and sadness for the fate of friends and countrymen.

"The whole number of victims slain in this massacre amounted to more than 200 men, besides a few women and some negroes, who attempted to defend their masters. Ninety-two women and 155 children were taken prisoners. Among the victims were Father Poisson, the Jesuit missionary; Laloire, the principal

agent of the company ; M Kollys and Son, who had purchased M. Hubert's interest, and had just arrived to take possession."

When the news of this terrible disaster reached New Orleans, the French commenced a war of extermination against the Natchez. The tribe eventually were driven across the Mississippi, and finally scattered and extirpated. The Great Sun and his principal war chiefs, falling into the hands of the French, were shipped to St. Domingo and sold as slaves. Some of the poor prisoners were treated with excessive cruelty ; four of the men and two of the women were publicly burned to death at New Orleans. Some Tonica Indians, who had brought down a Natchez woman, whom they had discovered in the woods, were allowed to execute her in the same manner. The unfortunate woman was led forth to a platform erected near the levee and, surrounded by the whole population, was slowly consumed by the flames ! She supported her tortures with stoical fortitude, not shedding a tear. "On the contrary," says Gayarre, "she upbraided her torturers with their want of skill, flinging at them every opprobrious epithet she could think of."

The scattered remnants of the tribe sought an asylum among the Chickasaws and other tribes who were hostile to the French. Since that time, the individuality of the Natchez tribe has been swallowed up in the nations with whom they were incorporated. Yet no tribe has left so proud a memorial of their courage, their independent spirit, and their contempt of death in defence of their rights and liberties. The city of Natchez is their monument, standing upon the field of their glory. Such is the brief history of the Natchez Indians, who are now considered extinct. In refinement and intelligence they were equal, if not superior, to any other tribe north of Mexico. In courage and stratagem they were inferior to none. Their form was noble and commanding ; their stature was seldom under 6 feet, and their persons were straight and athletic. Their countenance indicated more intelligence than is commonly found in savages. The head was compressed from the os frontis to the occiput, so that the forehead appeared high and retreating, while the occiput was compressed almost in a line with the neck and shoulders. This peculiarity, as well as their straight, erect form, is ascribed to the pressure of bandages during infancy. Some of the remaining individuals of the Natchez tribe were in the town of Natchez as late as the year 1782, or more than half a century after the Natchez massacre.

MASON, THE OUTLAW.

Among the incidents in the early history of the Mississippi Territory was the violent death of the notorious robber, Mason. This fearless bandit had become the terror of the routes from New Orleans and Natchez through the Indian nations. After the organization of the Territorial Government, and the opening of roads through the wilderness to Tennessee, the return of traders, supercargoes, and boatmen to the Northern settlements, with the proceeds of their voyage, was on foot and on horseback, in parties for mutual protection, through the Indian nations ; and often rich treasures of specie were packed on mules and horses over these long and toilsome journeys. Nor was it a matter of surprise, in a dreary wilderness, that bandits should infest such a route. It was in the year 1802, when all travel and intercourse from New Orleans and the Mississippi Territory was necessarily by way of this solitary trace, or by the slow-ascending barge and keel, that Mason made his appearance in the Mississippi Territory.

Long accustomed to robbery and murder upon the Lower Ohio, during the Spanish dominion on the Mississippi, and pressed by the rapid approach of the American population, he deserted the "Cave in the Rock," on the Ohio, and began to infest the great Natchez Trace, where the rich proceeds of the river trade were the tempting prize, and where he soon became the terror of every peaceful traveller through the wilderness. Associated with him were his two sons and a few other desperate miscreants; and the name of Mason and his band was known and dreaded from the morasses of the southern frontier to the silent shades of the Tennessee River. The outrages of Mason became more frequent and sanguinary. One day found him marauding on the banks of the Pearl, against the life and fortune of the trader; and, before pursuit was organized, the hunter, attracted by the descending sweep of the solitary vulture, learned the story of another robbery and murder on the remote shores of the Mississippi. Their depredations became at last so frequent and daring, that the people of the territory were driven to adopt measures for their apprehension. But such was the knowledge of the wilderness possessed by the wily bandit, and such his untiring vigilance and activity, that for a time he baffled every attempt for his capture.

Treachery at last, however, effected what stratagem, enterprise, and courage had in vain attempted. A citizen of great respectability, passing with his sons through the wilderness, was plundered by the bandits. Their lives were, however, spared, and they returned to the settlement. Public feeling was now excited, and the Governor of the Territory found it necessary to act. Governor Claiborne accordingly offered a liberal reward for the robber, Mason, dead or alive. The proclamation was widely distributed, and a copy of it reached Mason himself, who indulged in much merriment on the occasion. Two of his band, however, tempted by the large reward, concerted a plan by which they might obtain it. An opportunity soon occurred; and while Mason, in company with the two conspirators, was counting out some ill-gotten plunder, a tomahawk was buried in his brain. His head was severed from his body and borne in triumph to Washington, then the seat of the Territorial Government.

The head of Mason was recognized by many, and identified by all who read the proclamation, as the head entirely corresponded with the description given of certain scars and peculiar marks. Some delay, however, occurred in paying over the reward, owing to the slender state of the treasury. Meantime, a great assemblage from all the adjacent country had taken place, to view the grim and ghastly head of the robber chief. They were not less inspired with curiosity to see and converse with the individual whose prowess had delivered the country of so great a scourge. Among those spectators were the two young men, who, unfortunately for these traitors, recognized them as companions of Mason in the robbery of their father.

It is unnecessary to say that treachery met its just reward, and that justice was also satisfied. The reward was not only withheld, but the robbers were imprisoned, and, on the full evidence of their guilt, condemned and executed at Greenville, Jefferson county.

The band of Mason, being thus deprived of their leader and two of his most efficient men, dispersed and fled the country. Thus terminated the terrors which had infested the route through the Indian nations, known to travellers as the "Natchez and Nashville Trace."

LOUISIANA.

Area,	41,346 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	708,002
(Whites, 357,629. Negroes, 350,373)	
Population in 1870,	726,915

THE State of Louisiana is situated between 29° and 33° N. latitude, and between $88^{\circ} 50'$ and $94^{\circ} 20'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Arkansas and Mississippi, on the east by Mississippi and the Gulf of Mexico, on the south by the Gulf of Mexico, and on the west by Texas. Its extreme length from east to west is about 292 miles, and its extreme width from north to south about 250 miles.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The surface of the entire State is low and flat, its highest point being less than 200 feet above the level of the Gulf of Mexico. The southern portion is so low that it is always subject to overflows, when the rivers are full. In the northern part, the country is slightly rolling, except in the northwest, where it is converted into a series of extensive marshes by the Red River and its tributaries.

The Gulf coast is extensive, and is cut up into innumerable bays, lakes, bayous, and inlets. The principal are, Lake Borgne in the southeast, which is, strictly speaking, a bay through which Lake Pontchartrain discharges its waters into the Gulf. Black Lake Bay lies south of this. On the southern coast are (beginning on the east) West, Barataria, Timbalier, Terre Bonne, Pelto Lake, Caillou, Atchafalaya, Cote Blanche, Vermilion bays, and Mermentau, Calcasieu and Sabine lakes. The majority of these afford excellent harbors. They are principally the extensions of the rivers with which lower

Louisiana is cut up. A number of low islands lie along the coast. Some of them are productive, while others are worthless.

Small lakes are very numerous in the southern part of the State, the whole of which is more or less marshy.

Lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain lie in the southeast part of the State, near the city of New Orleans. Lake Maurepas is but an extension of the Amite River and flows into Lake Pontchartrain, which in its turn pours its waters through Lake Borgne into the Gulf. Lake Pontchartrain is about 40 miles long and from 8 to 24 miles wide, and has a maximum depth of from 16 to 20 feet. It is navigable for steamers, and is connected with New Orleans by a canal. Several pleasant towns lie on its shores.

The Mississippi River, already described, forms the eastern boundary of the northern half of this State, as far as the southern line of the State of Mississippi. It then flows southeast through the centre of lower Louisiana, and empties into the Gulf of Mexico, in the extreme southeast corner of the State. It receives the waters of the Red River just above the Mississippi line, and pours its own flood into the Gulf through several channels besides its own mouths. These channels are called bayous, and leave the main stream below the mouth of the Red River, and west of the Mississippi. They empty into the Gulf in the southern part of the State, and are almost all of them navigable for steamers. In this way New Orleans has abundant direct water communication with the southwest parishes. The principal of these are the Atchafalaya and Lafourche rivers or bayous, the former 250, and the latter 150 miles long. The former is more properly an outlet of the Red than of the Mississippi, and is believed to have been the original channel of the Red River. *The Red River*, already described, flows across the State from northwest to southeast. It is navigable for steamers to the border of Arkansas. Its principal branch, the *Washita*, flows into it near its mouth, and is 500 miles long. It is navigable for large steamers to Camden in Arkansas, 300 miles from its mouth. The *Washita*, in its turn, receives the waters of the *Tensas*, a short distance above its mouth. This river is 250 miles long, and navigable for 150 miles. *The Teche River*, or *Bayou*, commences a short distance southeast of Alexandria, on the Red River, and flows southeast into the Gulf of Mexico. It is about 200 miles long, is very tortuous, and flows through a low, flat prairie region in which cotton and sugar grow to great perfection. It is navigable at high water for nearly its entire length. *The Cal-*

casieu River, about 250 miles long, drains the southwest part of the State. It is not navigable. *The Sabine River*, which rises in Texas, and has a length of about 500 miles, forms a part of the western boundary of Louisiana, and flows into Sabine Lake. It is shallow at its mouth, and navigable only for very small steamers at high water.

MINERALS.

"In the soil and timber are to be found the chief resources of this State, but few minerals, except salt, having as yet been developed or discovered, though some coal, iron, and copper are reported to exist in Union parish. Timber is abundant in all parts of the State, embracing many varieties of oak, ash, cottonwood, cypress, gum, elm, sycamore, pecan, hackberry, pine, etc., and presenting great inducements for development, some of the pine forests capable of producing quantities of turpentine. On one of the islands within the limits of St. Mary's parish—Petite Anse or Salt Island—there exists an immense bed of salt. By boring, parties have proved that the bed is half a mile square, and it may extend a mile or more. They have gone thirty-eight feet into the solid salt, and find no signs of the bottom of the stratum. The surface is about on a level with tide-water, and the earth covers the salt from eleven to thirty feet. On the surface of the salt they found a soil like that of the surrounding marshes, and above this sedge or marsh grass in a good state of preservation. Above the latter the soil appears to be the workings of the hill-sides above."

CLIMATE.

The climate is mild as a general rule, but the winters are severer than those of the Atlantic States lying along the same parallel. The summers are long, hot, and dry, and cause a poisonous exhalation from the marshy soil which is the fruitful source of yellow fever. The spring is early and pleasant.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The best soil is along the rivers and in the marshy district. Almost all the land in the lower part of the State is fertile, but in the northern part, away from the rivers, it is poor. The swamp lands are easily drained, and are almost inexhaustible. Tropical fruits grow well in the southern parishes, but neither the orange nor the sugarcane thrives above the 31st parallel of north latitude, which marks the southern boundary of the western part of the State of Mississippi. In the northern part the fruits of the Middle States thrive.



GATHERING SUGAR-CANE.

The Report of the Bureau of Agriculture for 1868 thus speaks of this State :

"Cotton, sugar, corn, and potatoes are the principal crops in Louisiana, and before the war the cultivation of the first two named was very profitable, but our correspondents uniformly represent the production of cotton as ruinous to the planter during the past year. Jackson parish reports two hundred pounds of lint cotton to the acre, fifteen bushels of corn, one hundred and fifty bushels of sweet potatoes, and twenty bushels of peas. Tensas parish, one to one and a half bales to the acre in good season, fifty to seventy-five bushels of corn ; in cultivation, nine acres of cotton allotted to one laborer, and five acres of corn. In Union parish about six bales of cotton to the hand was expected before the war. In Carroll parish cotton will produce

six hundred pounds lint to the acre when newly cultivated, and a fair laborer can make eight bales of cotton and one hundred bushels of corn, yielding about \$500 to the hand; but under the present system the average is two and a half bales cotton and twenty-five bushels corn to the hand. Prior to the war the parish of Rapides produced from 30,000 to 40,000 bales cotton, 15,000 to 18,000 hogsheads sugar, and 30,000 barrels molasses, but the production has much deteriorated, though with the labor and capital at command, the capabilities are still as great. In the southern tier of parishes sugar, rice, and tobacco are made specialties, and fruits are extensively grown, with great inducements for the increase of the latter production.

“Louisiana possesses great capabilities for fruit culture, and the climate and soil present strong inducements to persons desiring to engage in such production. In St. Mary’s parish they have fruits of various kinds from April to November: ‘The Japan plum grows all winter and ripens in April; dewberries also ripen in April, and grow in abundance; strawberries, blackberries, and mulberries ripen in May; plums in June; peaches, quinces, and figs in July; and grapes and apples in August. The muscadine, a species of scuppernong, grows wild, and ripens in August; pears ripen in August, and grow in great perfection; oranges ripen in October, and usually remain good on the trees till December; bananas, limes, and lemons ripen in October.’ The yield of oranges per acre is enormous. Our correspondent writes that ‘it is usual to plant about one hundred trees to the acre below New Orleans on the river. Some orchards yield from \$10,000 to \$20,000 annually. A full-grown tree will bear 1000 oranges, and a single tree has been known to yield 5000 oranges. Trees commence bearing when five years old, when properly managed.’ What we quote in regard to the capabilities of this parish may be said, with slight variation, of most of the lower counties of the State, while in the more northern regions many of the fruits named grow in perfection, and in some localities the apple succeeds well. Our Rapides reporter writes: ‘I have a second crop of apples this year. They are hard, small, and poor, though they are eaten.’

“In Washington parish a small orchard, chiefly peaches, in one season yielded a profit of \$4000, the fruit being early and within close proximity to New Orleans markets. Our East Feliciana correspondent writes: ‘This is one of the finest fruit regions in the world. Apples, peaches, pears, quinces, plums, figs, grapes, berries, etc., do

well, and wild blackberries grow in great abundance, from which a superior wine is made. We have, as yet, but few orchards. One man this season sold \$600 worth of pears from fourteen trees.' Though but little attention has heretofore been given to fruit culture, the capabilities of the State are so evident, and the inducements so strong, in a pecuniary point of view, that the production must, at an early day, become a leading interest of Louisiana."

The civil war laid prostrate the agricultural interests of the State. The plantations in many cases were utterly ruined. The levees of the rivers were cut or allowed to give way, and many of the finest cotton and sugar fields were thus converted into worthless swamps. It will require many years to repair these losses. The returns of the State are as follows:

Bushels of Indian corn,	8,000,000
Pounds of rice,	16,000,000
Hhds of sugar,	85,000
Gallons of molasses,	4,860,000
Bales of cotton,	400,000
Bushels of sweet potatoes (estimated),	1,100,000
Number of horses,	65,000
" asses and mules,	64,000
" milch cows,	110,000
" sheep,	120,000
" swine,	340,000
" young cattle,	210,000
Value of domestic animals,	\$16,000,000

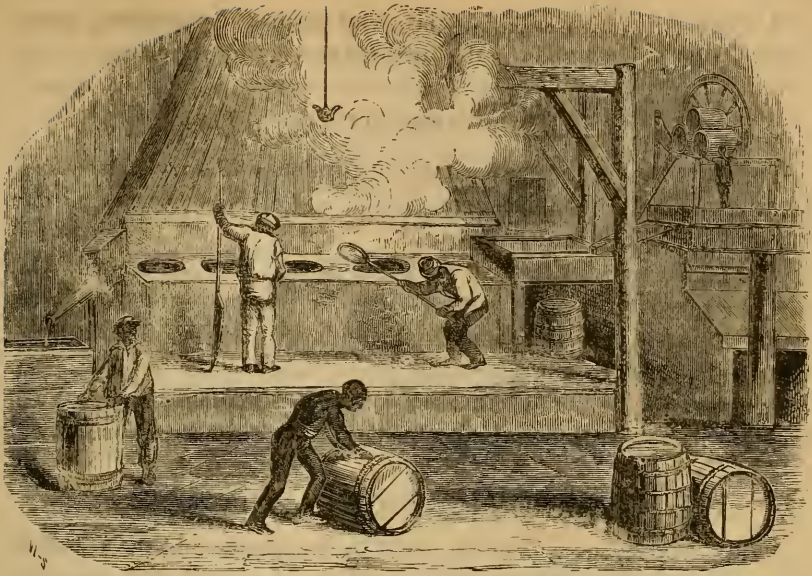
MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.

More attention is being paid to manufactures. In 1870 the capital invested in them amounted to \$18,313,974.

With respect to its commercial advantages the State is unequalled by any portion of the world. The Mississippi and its tributaries bring to it the products of nearly one half the Union. New Orleans is the principal port, and is actively engaged in trade with all parts of the world. In 1860 the exports of Louisiana amounted to \$108,417,798, and the imports to \$22,992,773. In spite of the losses of the war, they were as follows in 1870: exports, \$107,657,042; imports, \$14,993,754.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

Within the limits of the State the great abundance of water transportation does away with the necessity for many railways. In 1868



A SUGAR-HOUSE.

there were 539 miles of completed railway in the State, constructed at a cost of about \$20,000,000. A main line extends north through Mississippi to the States of the East and West, and roads are in construction from a point opposite to Vicksburg, Miss., to Shreveport and north-eastern Texas, and from Algiers along the Gulf coast to Galveston, Texas.

EDUCATION.

In 1870 there were in Louisiana 13 colleges, with over 1600 students; 400 academies and other schools, with about 25,000 pupils; and 178 public schools, with over 25,000 pupils. With the exception of the schools of New Orleans, nearly all the educational institutions of the State were destroyed or discontinued by the war. Since the return of peace, Centenary College, at Jackson, and several academies and private schools have been reopened with success.

The new Constitution establishes a system of public education, and requires that at least one free public school shall be opened in each parish in the State. A permanent school fund is established, and the Legislature is required to levy taxes for the support of the schools. Appropriations by the State for the support, assistance, or encouragement of any private school or private institution of learning, whatsoever, are forbidden.

A University, with collegiate, law, and medical departments, is established at New Orleans, and supported in part by the State.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The State has but a few charitable institutions of its own, depending mainly on similar establishments in the city of New Orleans, to the support of which it contributes.

The Penitentiary is located at Baton Rouge, the old capital. It was destroyed during the war, but has since been restored. There were 342 males and 12 females confined there in 1870. The institution is supported to a great extent by the labor of the convicts, who are engaged in the manufacture of cotton and woollen goods. Two hundred looms, with the necessary machinery, are in operation.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870 there were 599 churches in Louisiana, and the value of church property was \$4,048,525. The greater part of this amount is owned in New Orleans. In the rest of the State the loss was heavy during the war.

FINANCES.

The finances of Louisiana are in a very unfortunate condition. The amount of the public debt is disputed, but the Governor estimates it at \$24,634,407, inclusive of an obligation to issue about \$15,000,000. worth of bonds. The receipts of the Treasury for the fiscal year ending November 30, 1870, were \$6,537,959; while the total expenditures for the same period amounted to \$7,050,636.

GOVERNMENT.

The present Constitution of Louisiana was adopted by the people April 23d, 1868. Every male person, 21 years old, born in the United States, or naturalized, without respect to race, color, or previous condition, who has resided in the State one year, and in the parish ten days, is entitled to vote at the elections. Criminals, and certain persons concerned in the Rebellion, are excluded from the franchise.

The Government is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Auditor, Treasurer, Attorney-General, and a General Assembly, consisting of a Senate (36 members, elected for four

years, one-half retiring biennially) and a House of Representatives (101 members, elected for two years), all chosen by the people. The Governor and other State officers are elected for four years.

The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court, District Court, Parish Courts, and in Justices of the Peace. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and four Associate Justices, appointed by the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, for a period of eight years. Except in specified cases, this court has appellate jurisdiction only. The judges of the other courts are chosen by the popular vote.

The seat of Government is located at New Orleans. Previous to the war Baton Rouge was the capital.

The State is divided into 48 parishes.

HISTORY.

In 1691 La Salle discovered the mouth of the Mississippi River, and took possession of the country in the name of the King of France. In 1699 Iberville attempted to form a settlement along the lower Mississippi, but his attempt ended in the establishment of the Colony of Biloxi, in the present State of Mississippi. In 1712 Louis XIV., of France, named the region in honor of himself, and granted it to M. Crozat, a wealthy capitalist, who, in 1717, surrendered his charter to the Government, complaining that he had not been properly supported by the authorities, and that he had suffered such losses in attempting to settle the province as almost to ruin him. In 1717 the famous John Law, living in Paris, obtained a charter for a bank, and for a Mississippi company, to whom the king granted the province. A remarkable financial scheme was conceived by Law in connection with these grants, and for a while carried out so successfully that the stock of the bank went up to six hundred times its par value. It finally exploded, however, and ruined every one concerned in it, having accomplished nothing but the settlement of New Orleans, in 1717. In 1732 Law's company surrendered their charter to the king, who declared the commerce of Louisiana free to all nations.

In 1760 war was begun between Great Britain and France, and Canada was conquered by the former power. Large numbers of Canadians now emigrated to Louisiana, and settled in the country west of the Mississippi, founding the settlements of Attakapas, Opelousas, and Avoyelles. In 1762 France ceded her possessions in

Louisiana west of the Mississippi to Spain, and the country east of that river to England. The Spanish authorities soon took possession of New Orleans, and inaugurated a series of cruel and oppressive measures, which filled the French settlers with dismay. They held the province during the American Revolution, and towards the close of the war the Spanish Governor of New Orleans captured the British garrison at Baton Rouge. The treaty of 1783 opened the navigation of the Mississippi River to all nations, but the Spaniards at New Orleans effectually neutralized this concession by seizing all merchandize brought to that city in any but Spanish ships. This gave rise to a long and vexatious dispute between the United States and Spain, which was terminated only by the acquisition of Louisiana by the former power. The manner in which this territory passed into our hands, is thus related by Bonner, in his "History of Louisiana:"

"In 1763 Louisiana was ceded to Spain, and by a secret article in the treaty of St. Ildefonso, concluded in 1800, that power ceded it back to France. Napoleon, however, wished to keep this cession secret until he should have—as he hoped to do—reduced St. Domingo to submission. Failing in this, he was rendered indifferent to his new acquisition. In January, 1803, he sent out Laussat as prefect of the colony, which was the first intimation that the inhabitants had of the transfer, which gave them great joy.

"On being informed of this retrocession, President Jefferson had dispatched instructions to Robert Livingston, the American minister at Paris, to represent to the First Consul that the occupation of New Orleans by France would endanger the friendly relations between the two nations, and, perhaps, even oblige the United States to make common cause with England; as the possession of this city by the former, by giving her the command of the Mississippi, the only outlet to the produce of the Western States, and also of the Gulf of Mexico, so important to American commerce, would render it almost certain that the conflicting interests of the two nations would lead to an open rupture. Mr. Livingston was therefore instructed not only to insist upon the free navigation of the Mississippi, but to negotiate for the acquisition of New Orleans itself, and the surrounding territory; and Mr. Monroe was appointed with full powers to assist him in the negotiation.

"Bonaparte, who always acted promptly, soon came to the conclusion that what he could not defend, he had better dispose of on the best terms; but before deciding, he summoned two of his ministers in council, on the 10th of April, 1803, and thus addressed them:

“I am fully sensible of the value of Louisiana, and it was my wish to repair the error of the French diplomatists who abandoned it in 1763. I have scarcely recovered it before I run the risk of losing it; but if I am obliged to give it up, it shall hereafter cost more to those who force me to part with it, than to those to whom I yield it. The English have despoiled France of all her northern possessions in America, and now they covet those of the south. I am determined that they shall not have the Mississippi. Although Louisiana is but a trifle compared to their vast possessions in other parts of the globe, yet, judging from the vexation they have manifested on seeing it return to the power of France, I am certain that their first object will be to gain possession of it. They will probably commence the war in that quarter. They have twenty vessels in the Gulf of Mexico, and our affairs in St. Domingo are daily getting worse, since the death of Le Clerc. The conquest of Louisiana might be easily made, and I have not a moment to lose in putting it out of their reach. I am not sure but that they have already begun an attack upon it. Such a measure would be in accordance with their habits; and in their place I should not wait. I am inclined, in order to deprive them of all prospect of ever possessing it, to cede it to the United States. Indeed, I can hardly say that I cede it, for I do not yet possess it; and if I wait but a short time, my enemies may leave me nothing but an empty title to grant to the Republic I wish to conciliate. They only ask for one city of Louisiana, but I consider the whole colony as lost; and I believe that, in the hands of this rising power, it will be more useful to the political, and even the commercial interests of France, than if I should attempt to retain it. Let me have both your opinions on the subject.’

“One of the ministers, Barbe Marbois, fully approved of the cession, but the other opposed it. They debated the matter for a long time, and Bonaparte concluded the conference without making his determination known. The next day, however, he sent for Marbois, and said to him:

“The season for deliberation is over; I have determined to renounce Louisiana. I shall give up not only New Orleans, but the whole colony, without reservation. That I do not undervalue Louisiana I have sufficiently proved, as the object of my first treaty with Spain was to recover it. But, though I regret parting with it, I am convinced it would be folly to persist in trying to keep it. I commission you, therefore, to negotiate this affair with the envoys of the

United States. Do not wait the arrival of Mr. Monroe, but go this very day and confer with Mr. Livingston. Remember, however, that I need ample funds for carrying on the war, and I do not wish to commence it by levying new taxes. For the last century France and Spain have incurred great expense in the improvement of Louisiana, for which her trade has never indemnified them. Large sums have been advanced to different companies, which have never returned to the treasury. It is fair that I should require repayment for these. Were I to regulate my demands by the importance of this territory to the United States, they would be unbounded; but, being obliged to part with it, I shall be moderate in my terms. Still, remember, I must have 50,000,000 francs, and I will not consent to take less. I would rather make some desperate effort to preserve this fine country.'

"The negotiations commenced that very day. Mr. Monroe arrived at Paris on the 12th of April, and the two representatives of the United States, after holding a private conference, announced that they were ready to treat for the cession of the entire territory, which at first Mr. Livingston had hesitated to do, believing the proposal of the First Consul to be only a device to gain time.

"On the 30th of April, 1803, the treaty was signed. The United States were to pay \$15,000,000 for their new acquisition, and be indemnified for some illegal captures; while it was agreed that the vessels and merchandise of France and Spain should be admitted into all the ports of Louisiana, free of duty, for 12 years.

"Bonaparte stipulated in favor of Louisiana that it should, as soon as possible, be incorporated into the Union, and that its inhabitants should enjoy the same rights, privileges, and immunities as other citizens of the United States; and the third article of the treaty, securing to them these benefits, was drawn up by the First Consul himself, who presented it to the plenipotentiaries with these words:

"'Make it known to the people of Louisiana that we regret to part with them; that we have stipulated for all the advantages they could desire; and that France, in giving them up, has insured to them the greatest of all. They could never have prospered under any European government as they will when they become independent. But, while they enjoy the privileges of liberty, let them ever remember that they are French, and preserve for their mother-country that affection which a common origin inspires.'

"The completion of this important transaction gave equal satisfaction to both parties. 'I consider,' said Livingston, 'that from this

day the United States takes rank with the first powers of Europe, and now she is entirely escaped from the power of England ;' and Bonaparte expressed a similar sentiment in these words: 'By this cession of territory I have secured the power of the United States, and given to England a maritime rival, who, at some future time, will humble her pride.' These words appeared prophetic when the troops of Britain, a few years after, met so signal an overthrow on the plains of Louisiana.

"The boundaries of the colony had never been clearly defined, and one of Bonaparte's ministers drew his attention to his obscurity. 'No matter,' said he, 'if there was no uncertainty, it would, perhaps, be good policy to leave some ;' and, in fact, the Americans, interpreting to their own advantage this uncertainty, some few years after seized upon the extensive territory of Baton Rouge, which was in dispute between them and the Spaniards.

"On the 30th of November, 1803, Laussat took possession of the country, when Casa Calvo and Salcedo, the Spanish commissioners, presented to him the keys of the city, over which the tri-colored flag floated but for a short time. The colony had been under the rule of Spain for a little more than 34 years.

"On the 20th of December, in the same year, General Wilkinson and Governor Claiborne, who were jointly commissioned to take possession of the country for the United States, made their entry into New Orleans at the head of the American troops. Laussat gave up his command, and the star-spangled banner supplanted the tri-colored flag of France."

In 1804, Louisiana was erected into a Territory by Congress. In 1810, the Spanish post at Baton Rouge was seized by the United States forces under General Wilkinson, and the territory connected with it added to Louisiana, which in 1812, was admitted into the Union as a State.

During the second war with England, the British made several attempts to get possession of the mouths of the Mississippi, but were finally and decisively defeated on the plains of Chalmette, below New Orleans, on the 8th of January, 1815, by an American force under General Andrew Jackson.

The territory purchased from France by the Louisiana treaty is now occupied by the States of Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Minnesota, Kansas, Nebraska, and Oregon, and the Territories of Dakota, Colorado, Utah, Wyoming, Montana, Idaho, and Washington. The reader will thus see the importance of the transaction.

On the 26th of January, 1861, the State withdrew from the Union and joined the Southern Confederacy. One of the first objects of the Federal Government was to secure the city of New Orleans, which was captured early in 1862 by the fleet of Admiral Farragut. From this time the lower part of the State was more or less overrun by the forces of the North and South. The country along the rivers suffered terribly. In 1863, the Confederate stronghold at Port Hudson, on the Mississippi River, a short distance above Baton Rouge, was besieged by the forces of General Banks. The fall of Vicksburg, in July, 1863, compelled the surrender of this place. Subsequently the northwest part of the State—the Red River country—was invaded by a powerful force under General Banks. He was defeated by the Confederates in two severe battles and forced to retreat. While the siege of Vicksburg was in progress, a severe battle was fought at Baton Rouge, which town was almost destroyed during the war. Several towns along the Mississippi were burned, and the lower parishes generally desolated.

Attempts were made, in 1864, to organize a “restored government” for the State, and Representatives were elected to Congress. The whole system was repudiated by Congress subsequently. In 1865, a Provisional Government was recognized by the President, and overthrown by Congress, which body, in 1867, placed the State under military rule as a part of the Fifth Military District. A Convention met in New Orleans, in November, 1867, and adopted a State Constitution, which was ratified by the people on the 23d of April, 1868. The State was readmitted into the Union on the 25th of June, 1868.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

The most important cities and towns in the State are Donaldsonville, Algiers, Baton Rouge, Jefferson, Carrollton, Plaquemine, Thibodeaux, Alexandria, Shreveport, Homer, and Opelousas.

NEW ORLEANS,

The capital and commercial and social metropolis of the State, is also the ninth city of the United States with respect to population, and the largest and most important city in the South. It is situated on the left bank of the Mississippi River, about 100 miles from the mouth of that stream. Latitude $29^{\circ} 58' N.$; longitude $90^{\circ} 7' W.$ It is 1663 miles southwest of New York, 2000 miles south-by-east of the

Falls of St. Anthony, the head of navigation on the Mississippi, 1628 miles south-by-west of Chicago, and 1438 miles southwest of Washington.

"New Orleans is built around a bend in the river, from which circumstance it has been denominated the 'Crescent City.' The site inclines gently from the margin of the Mississippi towards the marshy ground in the rear, and is from 2 to 5 feet below the level of the river at the usual spring freshets. To prevent inundations, an embankment or levee, about 15 feet high in some places, and 6 feet in others, has been raised, extending 120 miles above the city, and to Port Plaquemine, 43 miles below it. This forms a delightful promenade. In consequence of the change of the course of the river opposite New Orleans, large quantities of alluvion, swept from the north and held in suspension by the current, are here deposited. New formations from this cause, in front of that portion of the quay most used for the purposes of commerce, have been so rapid that it has been necessary within a few years to build piled wharves jutting out from 50 to 100 feet into the Mississippi. The levee here has also been gradually widened, so that an additional tier of warehouses has been erected between the city and the river. The old city proper, originally laid out by the French, is in the form of a parallelogram, 1320 yards long and 700 yards wide. Above this are what were formerly the faubourgs of St. Mary, Annunciation, and La Course; below, Marigny, Dunois, and Deelouet; and in the rear, Trémé and St. John's. Lafayette, until a few years ago under a separate government, is immediately above the city."

The city is regularly laid out. The streets are narrow in the older portion, and wide in the new, and are well paved. Since the civil war, the city has been kept unusually clean. The principal business thoroughfare, Canal street, is 190 feet wide, with a turfed promenade, 25 feet wide, extending along the middle of the entire street. Esplanade, Rampart, and Basin streets have similar grass-plots. The city is well built, the buildings being mostly of brick. Owing to the marshy nature of the ground—water being found two feet below the surface—the houses have no cellars. A basement, about 6 feet in height, takes the place of the cellar. In the business portions, the buildings are 5 and 6 stories in height, but in the private sections they are lower. The dwellings in the suburbs, especially in Lafayette, are surrounded by orange, lemon, magnolia and other trees which fill the air with a delicious perfume. Many of the better class dwellings are palatial in their external and internal appointments, and there is, perhaps, no

city in the country where the higher classes are more luxurious in their tastes and style of living. The general aspect of the city is bright, cheerful and inviting. It is so thoroughly French in its general characteristics, that this could hardly be otherwise. "In the old city, many of the dwellings are constructed with a carriage-way and gate leading directly from the street to an interior courtyard enclosed by the main building. Most of the signs over the shops are inscribed in French, or both French and English. This portion of the city, with the old Faubourg Trémé in its rear, constitutes the 2d district, formerly the 1st municipality. Next above, extending from Canal street to Felicity road, lies the 1st district, formerly the Faubourg St. Mary, and subsequently the 2d municipality; while still beyond is the 4th district, prior to 1852 the city of Lafayette. In these two districts, the buildings are more modern, and most of the streets are wider, though very irregular in their directions. In the 4th district, many of the dwellings are spacious and of great elegance, with ample grounds for shrubbery, etc. Below the old city, again, lies the 3d district, formerly the Faubourg Marigny, and afterwards the 3d municipality, which is the residence of a large portion of the Creole and foreign population. The nomenclature of the streets is remarkable. French, Spanish, and Anglo-American ideas and personages are all represented. The 9 Muses, with other heathen divinities, give name to one series, while in other quarters are found St. Charles, St. Mary, St. Louis, and the like, together with 'Love,' 'Piety,' 'Virtue,' 'Religious,' etc. The Pontchartrain railway runs through the Elysian Fields, a street, and by no means the most attractive one of the city. 'Greatmen,' 'Goodchildren,' 'Frenchmen,' 'Crops,' etc., are specimens of other odd and apparently whimsical names. The same street repeatedly changes, not only its direction, but its designation. Thus Royal, one of the original streets of the old city, becomes St. Charles on entering the 1st district, and still higher takes the pagan and poetical name of Nayades; while its continuation in the opposite direction, through the 3d district, commemorates the Marquis Casa Calvo, the last of the Spanish Governors. In like manner, Bourbon becomes Carondelet and then Apollo in one direction, and declines into Bagatelle in the other."

The city contains a number of handsome public squares. The principal of these is the *New City Park*, in the northeastern portion, near Metarie road and Monroe avenue. It contains about 150 acres, and is handsomely laid out. *Jackson Square*, formerly the Place



VIEW IN ST. CHARLES STREET, NEW ORLEANS.

d'Armes, covers the centre of the river front of the old Town Plot, now the 1st district. It is the favorite place of resort. It is beautifully laid out in shell walks, and is ornamented with the rarest plants and flowers of the South, statuary, etc. In the centre is an equestrian statue of General Jackson. The Cathedral of St. Louis and the Court buildings front the square. *Lafayette Square* is in the 2d district, and is bounded by St. Charles and Camp streets. The City Hall and several handsome buildings face it. *Tivoli Circle*, *Annunciation* and *Washington Squares*, and *Circus Place*, are the others. The last named is better known as *Congo Square*, and is famous as the favorite play-ground of the negroes.

The Public Buildings of New Orleans are numerous and handsome. The *U. S. Custom House*, on Canal street, near the levee, is still incomplete, but when finished will be, next to the Capitol at Washing-

ton, the largest building in the United States. It is built of granite from Quincy, Mass. Its main front, on Canal street, is 334 feet long. Its depth is 297 feet. The Post Office and other Government offices are located in the building. The *Mint* is a large edifice of brick, stuccoed in imitation of brown stone, and was used by the Federal Government for the coining of money until the breaking out of the civil war. The *City Hall* is a handsome building of white marble, at the intersection of St. Charles and Lafayette streets. It is in the Grecian Ionic style of architecture, and is 208 feet by 90. It contains the offices of the City Government. In the absence of a State Capitol, it is also used by the Governor of Louisiana and the Secretary of State. *Lyceum Hall* is a handsome building on St. Charles street, containing a lecture hall and the City and State Libraries. *Odd Fellows' Hall* is a showy edifice of brick stuccoed in imitation of marble. *Masonic Hall* and the *Merchants' Exchange* are also imposing structures. Two handsome buildings in the Doric and Tuscan orders, used by the city courts, are located on Jackson Square, one on each side of the Cathedral. They were constructed towards the close of the last century, through the liberality of the founder of the Cathedral, Don André Almonaster.

The Benevolent and Charitable institutions are numerous, and are famous for their efficiency. Perhaps no city in the Union has a greater number of such institutions, in proportion to its population. They are liberally supported by the city and the citizens. The most important are the *U. S. Marine Hospital*, the *Charity Hospital*, with beds for 450 patients, the *Female Orphan Asylum*, with accommodations for 160 children; the *Poydras Female Orphan Asylum*; the *Male Orphan Asylum*; the *Asylum of St. Elizabeth*, under the charge of the Sisters of Mercy; and the *Maison de Santé*.

The Penal and Reformatory establishments consist of a *Parish Jail* and a *Police Jail*, and a *Workhouse* in each municipality. The jails are 3 stories high, and are built of brick stuccoed in imitation of granite. The workhouses of the 2d and 3d municipalities are model institutions, and are devoted to the reformation of criminals, especially of juvenile offenders.

The city contains between 55 and 60 church edifices. About one-half of these are Roman Catholic. The principal church edifice is the Cathedral of St. Louis, on Jackson Square, begun in 1792 and completed in 1794, by Don André Almonaster, perpetual regidor, and Alvarez Real, of the province. It is plain and simple, but venerable and imposing in appearance.

The schools of New Orleans consist of 4 high schools, and 38 primary and grammar schools, which are public and designed for both sexes. In addition to these are 18 schools for colored children. The *University of Louisiana* was organized in 1849, and consists at present of a law and medical school, both of which are in a flourishing condition.

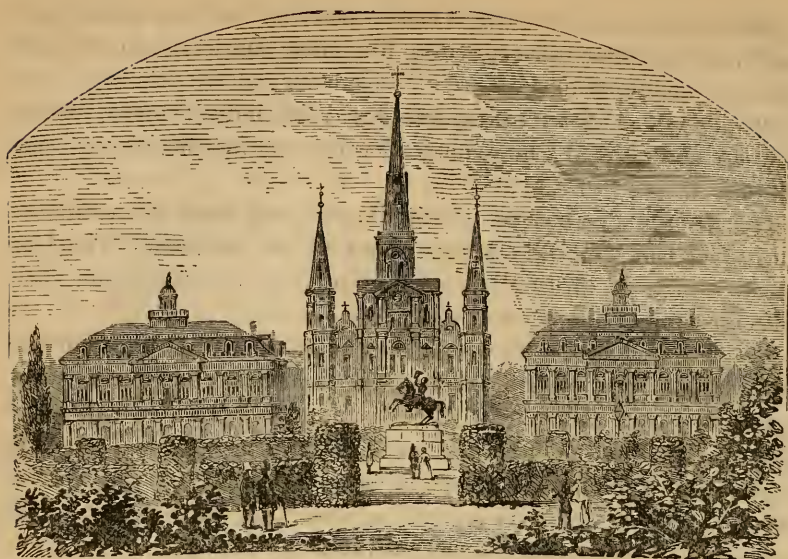
The city contains but few public libraries, and these are unimportant. The *City Library* contains about 20,000 volumes. The best libraries in New Orleans are those of private individuals, and such collections are said to be numerous.

The city is lighted with gas, and is supplied with water from the Mississippi. The water is pumped by steam into an elevated reservoir, and thence distributed through the city in the ordinary way. Street railways and omnibuses connect the principal points. There is a police and fire-alarm telegraph in operation in the city, which has also an efficient police force, and a steam fire department. The government consists of a Mayor and Common Council.

The newspapers of the city are among the most influential and the ablest in the country. More than 15 journals, daily and weekly, are published here, several in the French language.

The cemeteries of New Orleans are among its most peculiar features. There are 10 or 12 of these. Each one is enclosed with a brick wall, of arched cavities, or "ovens," as the natives call them, made just large enough to admit a single coffin, and built tier upon tier, to a height of about 12 feet, with a thickness of 10. The whole enclosure is divided into plots, with gravel paths intersecting each other at right angles, and is densely covered with tombs built wholly above ground, and from one to three stories high. Many of these tombs are very handsome. Burial beneath the surface is impracticable, and is only resorted to by persons too poor to buy a tomb for their friends. Strangers, the friendless, and the very poor are taken to the Potters' Field, and literally laid in the water, which is found 2 feet below the surface. The marshy soil often casts these coffins up again, leaving the bodies to rot under the fierce sun.

The *Markets* are characteristic and numerous. "The principal are the vegetable and meat (French) markets on the levee near Jackson Square and the French Cathedral. To be seen to the greatest advantage, they should be visited on Sunday morning, between the hours of 8 and 9 o'clock. At break of day the gathering commences—all colors, nations, and tongues, commingled in one heterogeneous mass.



JACKSON SQUARE, NEW ORLEANS.

The music, far from being unpleasant, however, is musical to the stranger's ear. A visit thither is thus described by a well-known writer: 'One morning we rose early to visit the market of the 1st municipality, and found the air on the bank of the Mississippi filled with mist as dense as a London fog, but of a pure white instead of yellow color. Through this atmosphere the innumerable masts of the ships alongside the wharf were dimly seen. Among other fruits in the market we observed abundance of bananas, and good pine-apples, for twenty-five cents each, from the West Indies. There were stalls where hot coffee was selling, in white china cups, reminding us of Paris. Among other articles exposed for sale were brooms made of palmetto-leaves, and wagon-loads of the dried Spanish moss, or *Tillandsia*. The quantity of this plant hanging from the trees in the swamps of Louisiana, and everywhere on the Delta of the Mississippi, might suffice to stuff all the mattresses in the world. The Indians formerly used it for another purpose—to give porosity or lightness to their building materials. When passing through the stalls, we were surrounded by a population of negroes, mulattoes, and quadroons, some talking French, others a patois of Spanish and French, and others a mixture of French and English, or English translated from French, and with the French accent. They seemed very merry,

- especially those who were jet black. Some of the Creoles also, both of French and Spanish extraction, like many natives of the South of Europe, were very dark.’”

The hotels of New Orleans are among the largest in the country, and are well kept. The principal are the St. Charles, the St. Louis, the St. James, and the City Hotel. There are 3 Theatres, and 2 Opera Houses in the city. They are well supported—especially the Opera Houses and the Orleans Theatre, at the last of which the performances are in the French language.

New Orleans is the commercial metropolis of the South, and the most important cotton market in the Union. It is admirably situated for commerce. It lies within 100 miles of the mouth of the Mississippi, and 2000 miles from the Falls of St. Anthony. All the immense trade of the Mississippi and its tributaries can be brought to the city without reshipment. Thus New Orleans is the natural gateway, through which pours the commerce of the entire Mississippi Valley. The river in front of the city is deep enough for the largest vessels, but the bar at the mouth of the river will not admit vessels drawing over 18 feet of water. The Levee, or steamboat landing, is one of the most interesting places in the city, and is thoroughly indicative of its immense trade. It extends along the river shore for about 4 miles, and has an average breadth of 100 feet. Here may be seen every description of craft navigating the Mississippi and the adjacent waters. At one portion are hundreds of flat boats drawn up on the land, some filled with hay, corn, potatoes, butter, cheese, apples, and cider, and some with horses, mules, cattle, hogs, sheep, etc. The levee here is piled up with flour, pork, and all sorts of agricultural produce in the greatest profusion. Beyond this is the steamboat landing, where as many as 1200 steamers may be seen in the busy season, discharging and receiving freight. The levee at this point is covered with immense piles of cotton in bales, and steamers are constantly arriving from, and departing for all parts of the Mississippi Valley. Above and below the steamer landing are dense lines of steamships and sailing vessels, in rows two and three deep, bringing the products of every country, and carrying away the products of the great valley.

The whole of the commerce of the city, however, is not carried on upon the levee. The railways bring enormous quantities of produce into New Orleans, and the trade which comes by way of Lake Pontchartrain is important. The lake is connected with New Orleans by means of a railway and a canal. This canal terminates in a spacious

basin near the centre of the city. This basin is always filled with sloops, schooners, and other vessels engaged in the trade with the ports on the Gulf coast to the eastward.

The river trade of New Orleans is immense, and its foreign and coasting trades are in proportion. The war for the time destroyed both, but they are now reviving. In 1860, the year before the civil war, there were received at New Orleans 2,255,458 bales of cotton, and in the same year 2,214,315 bales were exported. In the same year \$185,211,254 worth of Southern and Western produce were received. The separate products were valued as follows: cotton, \$109,389,228; sugar, \$18,190,880; molasses, \$6,250,335; tobacco, \$8,717,485; other products, \$42,663,326. In the same year the exports of the city were valued at \$108,293,567, and the imports at \$22,920,849. During the year ending June 30, 1860, the entrances at the port of New Orleans amounted to 2052 vessels, with a tonnage of 1,212,029; and the clearances to 2235 vessels, with a tonnage of 1,248,526. During the year ending August 31, 1860, the arrivals of steamboats were 3566, and of flatboats 831. These figures show the trade of the city in its palmiest days.

During the year ending September 1, 1870, there were received at New Orleans 1,208,000 bales of cotton, valued at \$120,000,000; 57,956 bbls. of rice; produce from the interior to the amount of \$200,000,000; and manufactured articles from the Northern States to the amount of \$50,000,000. During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1870, the foreign exports of New Orleans amounted to \$107,657,042, and the imports to \$14,993,754. The entire value of the commerce of the city for the same year was more than \$500,000,000. The exports coastwise amounted to nearly \$60,000,000. In the same year 4406 vessels were entered and cleared at the Custom House, with an aggregate tonnage of 3,126,319 tons. The arrivals of steamboats were 3650, with an aggregate tonnage of 3,000,000 tons. In the same year 2 large cotton mills were in operation in the city, also a number of factories engaged in making oil from cotton seed.

One of the greatest drawbacks to the prosperity of New Orleans is the unhealthiness of the city and the region in which it is situated. During the first 70 or 80 years after its settlement it was regarded as eminently healthful. Since its transfer to the American Government it has been repeatedly ravaged by yellow fever. Apart from this disease, the city is regarded as thoroughly healthful, and the natives and acclimated residents compare favorably with those of any



LAFAYETTE SQUARE, NEW ORLEANS.

other large city in respect of health and longevity. According to some writers, yellow fever made its first appearance with the arrival of the Spaniards in 1769; according to others, it did not appear until 1796. Previous to this it had appeared in Europe and in the more northern cities of North America. In 1819, '22, '29, '33, '35, '37, '39, '41, '43, '47, '53, and '58, it raged with fearful violence. In 1853, between May 26th and October 22d, 8500 persons are said to have died of the fever. The greatest mortality was on the 22d of August, when 283 persons died. During the summer season large numbers of persons leave the city, and trade is very dull.

In 1870 the population of New Orleans was 191,322, and is made up of native Americans, persons of foreign descent called Creoles, foreigners, and negroes and persons of African descent. "Those who would form a just estimate of the social character and appearance of the Creole population of the city, should visit the opera in the height of the season. The French Creole ladies, many of them descended from Norman ancestors, and of pure, unmixed blood, are very handsome. They are usually attired in Parisian fashion, not over-dressed, nor so thinly clad as are the generality of American women—their luxuriant hair, tastefully arranged, fastened with ornamental pins, and adorned with a colored ribbon or a single flower. The word 'creole' is used in Louisiana to express a native-born

American, whether black or white, descended from old-world parents, for they would not call the aboriginal Indians Creoles. It never means persons of mixed breed; and the French or Spanish Creoles in New Orleans would shrink as much as a New Englander from intermarriage with one *tainted*, in the slightest degree, with African blood. The frequent alliances of the Creoles, or Louisianians, of French extraction, with lawyers and merchants from the Northern States, help to cement the ties which are every day binding more firmly together the distant parts of the Union. Both races may be improved by such connection, for the manners of the Creole ladies are, for the most part, more refined; and many a Louisianian might justly have felt indignant if he could have overheard a conceited young bachelor from the North telling me 'how much they were preferred by the fair sex to the hard-drinking, gambling, horse-racing, cock-fighting, and tobacco-chewing Southerners.' If the Creoles have less depth of character, and are less striving and ambitious than the New Englanders, it must be no slight source of happiness to the former to be so content with present advantages. They seem to feel, far more than the Anglo-Saxons, that if riches be worth the winning they are also worth enjoying. The quadroons, or the offspring of the whites and mulattoes, sit in an upper tier of boxes appropriated to them. When they are rich, they hold a peculiar and very equivocal position in society. As children they have often been sent to Paris for their education, and, being as capable of improvement as any whites, return with refined manners, and not unfrequently with more cultivated minds than the majority of those from whose society they are shut out. 'By the tyranny of caste they are driven, therefore, to form among themselves a select and exclusive set. Among other stories illustrating their social relation to the whites, we are told that a young man of the dominant race fell in love with a beautiful quadroon girl, who was so light-colored as to be scarcely distinguishable from one of pure breed. He found that, in order to render the marriage legal, he was required to swear that he himself had negro blood in his veins; and, that he might conscientiously take the oath, he let some of the blood of his betrothed into his veins with a lancet. The romance of this doubtful tale was greatly diminished, although I fear that my inclination to believe in its truth was equally enhanced, when the additional circumstance was related, that the young lady was rich.' The foregoing sketch of society and social life in New Orleans, I need hardly remind my reader, was penned

long before the late rebellion had so changed the aspect of every thing throughout the South. The visitor will, however, be surprised as well as delighted at the extent to which the manners and customs of the '*old régime*' are still perpetuated among the descendants of the early settlers in the Crescent City."

Many of the European customs are still observed in New Orleans. "The holiday season, which includes Christmas and New Year's Day," says the writer quoted above, "is the best time to visit the city. No place on the broad continent presents such numerous and varied attractions at this festive season, and stolid, indeed, must be the stranger who is not impressed with his experiences. The distinguished author from whom we have so largely quoted, thus writes of the *Carnival* and the ceremonies of Mardi Gras: 'It was quite a novel and refreshing sight to see a whole population giving up their minds for a short season to amusement. There was a grand procession parading the streets, almost every one dressed in the most grotesque attire, troops of them on horseback, some in open carriages, with bands of music, and in a variety of costumes—some as Indians, with feathers on their heads, and one, a jolly fat man, as Mardi Gras himself. All wore masks, and here and there in the crowd, or stationed in a balcony above, we saw persons armed with bags of flour, which they showered down copiously on any one who seemed particularly proud of his attire. The strangeness of the scene was not a little heightened by the blending of negroes, quadroons, and mulattoes in the crowd; and we were amused by observing the ludicrous surprise, mixed with contempt, of several unmasked, stiff, grave Anglo-Americans from the North, who were witnessing for the first time what seemed to them so much mummary and tomfoolery. One waggoner, coming out of a cross street in his working dress, drove his team of horses and vehicle, heavily laden with cotton-bales, right through the procession, causing a long interruption. The crowd seemed determined to allow nothing to disturb their good humor; but although many of the wealthy Protestant citizens take part in the ceremony, this rude intrusion struck me as a kind of foreshadowing of coming events, emblematic of the violent shock which the invasion of the Anglo-Americans is about to give to the old *régime* of Louisiana. A gentleman told me that, being last year in Rome, he had not seen so many masks at the Carnival there; and, in spite of the increase of Protestants, he thought there had been quite as much "flour and fun" this year as usual. The proportion, however, of strict Romanists is not so great as formerly, and to-mor-

row, they say, when Lent begins, there will be an end of the trade in masks; yet the butchers will sell nearly as much meat as ever. During the Carnival the greater part of the French population keep open houses, especially in the country.’”

New Orleans was first settled in 1718, by Bienville, who had become satisfied of the propriety of removing the seat of government of the French province of Louisiana from Mobile to the more productive region of the lower Mississippi. In 1722, it contained about 100 log cabins and a population of 200 persons. In 1723, the seat of Government was permanently removed from Mobile to New Orleans. In 1727, the construction of the levee was begun. It was more than a mile in length, and was designed to protect the city from the overflows of the river. Smaller levees were constructed for 15 miles above, and 15 miles below the city. In the same year, a company of Jesuit Fathers, and one of Ursuline nuns arrived. The Jesuits remained until 1763, when they were expelled. The city grew gradually. In 1745, the population was estimated at 800 persons, exclusive of women and children, 200 soldiers, and 300 negroes. In 1763, the city of New Orleans passed into the hands of Spain, with the rest of Louisiana. The inhabitants, however, bitterly opposed the transfer, and the Spaniards did not take actual possession of the city until 1769, at which time the entire population numbered 3190. Many of the best inhabitants removed to the West Indies, rather than live under Spanish rule. Under the later Spanish Governors, however, matters took a different turn, and the city grew rapidly. In 1785, it contained 4980 inhabitants. In March, 1788, a fire destroyed 900 houses. Provisions ran low, and a famine was imminent. Between 1792 and 1797, the streets were lighted, fire companies were organized, and the Carondelet Canal was opened. In 1800, Spain re-ceded the province of Louisiana to France; and in 1803, Louisiana was purchased by the United States, and New Orleans became an American city. The population of the city at this time was 8000. During the second war with England, the English were very anxious to capture New Orleans, which was a prize of great value as controlling the navigation of the Mississippi. They made their grand attempt on the 8th of January, 1815, on the plain of Chalmette, near the city, and were defeated with heavy loss by a small American force under General Andrew Jackson. In 1836, the city was divided, by an Act of the Legislature, into three municipalities, each with a separate government; but, in 1852, these municipalities were consolidated, and

the limits of the corporation were extended to include the town of Lafayette, lying in the adjacent parish of the same name. At the beginning of the civil war, the city and the forts commanding the lower Mississippi were held by the Confederates. On the 25th of April, 1862, Admiral (then Commodore) Farragut passed the forts with his fleet, defeating and destroying the Confederate squadron which sought to bar his way. This victory opened the city to the United States army, which occupied it on the 1st of May, 1862, and held it until the close of the war. Soon after its capture, New Orleans became the capital of the State.

MISCELLANY.

THE BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.

On his arrival in the city, General Jackson, in conjunction with Judge Hall, and many influential persons of the city, on the 16th of December, 1814, issued an order declaring the city and environs of New Orleans to be under strict martial law. Every individual entering the city was required to report himself to the adjutant-general, and no person by land or water was suffered to leave the city without a passport. The street lamps were ordered to be extinguished at 9 o'clock; after which any persons found in the streets, or from their homes without permission in writing, and not having the countersign, were ordered to be apprehended as spies. This measure at once converted the whole city into a camp, and subjected the persons and property of the citizens to the will of the commanding general. Writs of habeas corpus, and all other civil processes by means of which the lives and properties of the people are protected, were for the time suspended. Such was the alarm and confusion of the moment, that few inquiries were made whence the commanding general of a military station derived such powers, to be exercised over the inhabitants of the adjacent country, in no-wise connected with his camp. Although the brilliant success which afterward attended the operations of General Jackson seemed to justify the measure, yet the people saw in it a precedent, which, though it might have saved New Orleans, might at some future period extinguish their liberties. A most rigid police was now instituted. Spies and traitors, with which, the Governor complained, the city abounded, and who had been industriously employed in seducing the French and Spanish inhabitants from their allegiance, now fled; and the remaining citizens cordially co-operated with the general in the means of defence. Fort St. Philips, which guarded the passage of the river at the Detour la Piquemine, was strengthened and placed under the command of Major Overton, an able and skilful engineer. A site was selected for works of defence, 4 miles below the city, where its destinies were ultimately to be determined. The right rested on the river, and the left was flanked by an impenetrable cypress swamp, which extended eastward to Lake Pontchartrain, and westward to within a mile of the river. Between the swamp and the river was a large ditch or artificial bayou, which had been made for agricultural objects, but which now served an important military purpose. On the northern bank of this ditch the entrenchments were thrown up.

Each flank was secured by an advance bastion, and the latter protected by batteries in the rear. These works were well mounted with artillery. Opposite this position, on the west bank of the river, on a rising ground, General Morgan, with the city and drafted militia, was stationed; and Commodore Patterson, with the crews of the *Caroline* and *Louisiana*, and the guns of the latter, formed another, near General Morgan's; both of which entirely enfiladed the approach of an enemy against the principal works. A detachment was stationed above the town to guard the pass of the Bayou St. John, if an attempt should be made from that quarter. These arrangements, promptly and judiciously made, gave entire confidence to the citizens, and inspired them with zeal to second the general's exertions. Reinforcements were daily arriving, and as they arrived were immediately conducted to their respective stations.

Landing of the British.—In the meantime the British were actively employed in making preparations for the attack; believing the pass from Lake Borgne to Lake Pontchartrain to be defended according to General Wilkinson's plan, by the fortress of Petit Coquille, they determined to land from Lake Borgne by the Bayou Bienvenue. For this purpose they concentrated their forces on Ship Island, 80 miles distant from the contemplated place of landing. The depth of water in Lake Borgne was such that this distance could be traversed only by boats and small craft, and must necessarily be passed several times in order to bring up the whole armament. The first object of the British general was to clear the lake of the American gunboats; and, for this purpose, 40 British launches were sent in pursuit of them, and, after a desperate resistance, captured and destroyed the whole American flotilla, stationed on Lakes Borgne and Pontchartrain, for the defence of New Orleans, consisting of 5 gunboats and a small sloop and schooner. By this success, they obtained the undisturbed possession of the lake; and, on the 22d of December, proceeded from their rendezvous on Ship Island, with all their boats and small craft capable of navigating the lake, to the Bayou of Bienvenue; and having surprised and captured the videttes at the mouth of the bayou, the first division accomplished their landing unobserved. Major-General Villiere, of the New Orleans militia, living on the bayou, to whom the important service of making the first attack, and giving notice of the enemy's approach, was entrusted, found them on his plantation, 9 miles below the city, without any previous knowledge of their approach.

Skirmishes on the 23d.—Notice was immediately given to General Jackson, who came out and attacked them on the evening of the 23d. In this affair the British sustained a loss, in killed, wounded, and missing, of 500. The British entrenched themselves at the Bienvenue plantation, 4 miles from the American camp, making the plantation house, in the rear of their works, their headquarters. General Jackson established his headquarters at M'Carty's plantation, on the bank of the river, and in full view of the British encampment. Two armed schooners, the *Caroline* and *Louisiana*, constituting all the American naval force on the river, dropped down from the city, anchored opposite the British encampment, and opened a brisk fire upon their lines with considerable effect. On the 27th, the *Caroline*, Captain Henly, got becalmed within reach of the British batteries, and was set fire to and destroyed by their hot shot: the other succeeded in getting out of their reach. On the 28th, the British advanced to within half a mile of the American lines, and opened a fire of shells and rockets; but were driven back by the artillery with considerable loss. On the night of the 31st of December, the enemy again advanced to within 600 yards of General Jackson's position.

and erected three batteries, mounting 15 guns, and at 8 o'clock in the morning opened a heavy fire. In the course of the day, under cover of these batteries, three unsuccessful attempts were made to storm the American works. By 4 in the afternoon, all the batteries were silenced, and in the following night they returned to their former position. On the 4th of January, General Adair arrived with 4000 Kentucky militia, principally without arms. The muskets and munitions of war destined for the supply of this corps, were provided at Pittsburgh; and did not leave that place until the 25th of December; passed Louisville the 6th of January, and arrived at New Orleans several days after the battle of the 8th. On the 6th, the last reinforcement of 3000 men arrived from England, under Major-General Lambert. Before the final assault on the American lines, the British general deemed it necessary to dislodge General Morgan and Commodore Patterson from their positions on the right bank. These posts so effectually enfiladed the approach to General Jackson's works, that the army advancing to the assault must be exposed to the most imminent hazard. To accomplish this object, boats were to be transported across the island from Lake Borgne to the Mississippi; for this purpose the British had been laboriously employed in deepening and widening the canal or Bayou Bienvenue, on which they first disembarked. On the 7th, they succeeded in opening the embankment on the river, and completing a communication from the lake to the Mississippi. In pushing the boats through, it was found at some places the canal was not of sufficient width, and at others the banks fell in and choked the passage, which necessarily occasioned great delay and increase of labor. At length, however, they succeeded in hauling through a sufficient number to transport 500 troops to the right bank. At dawn of day, on the 8th, was the period fixed for the final assault on the American lines. Colonel Thornton was detached with 500 men, to cross the river and attack the batteries on that side, at the same time that the main assault was to be made, of which he was to be informed by a signal rocket. The American general had detached Colonel Davis, with 300 Kentucky militia, badly armed, to reinforce General Morgan. These were immediately ordered to the water-edge, to oppose the enemy's landing. Unable in their situation to contend with a superior force of regular troops, well armed, they soon broke and fled, and the Louisiana militia at General Morgan's battery followed their example. Commodore Patterson's marine battery being now unprotected, his crews were obliged to yield to an overwhelming force, and the British succeeded in silencing both; but the opposition which Colonel Thornton met with prevented this operation from being completed until the contest was nearly ended on the opposite side of the river.

At daylight, on the morning of the 8th, the main body of the British, under their commander-in-chief, General Packenham, were seen advancing from their encampment to storm the American lines. On the preceding evening, they had erected a battery within 800 yards, which now opened a brisk fire to protect their advance. The British came on in two columns, the left along the levee on the bank of the river, directed against the American right, while their right advanced to the swamp, with a view to turn General Jackson's left. The country being a perfect level, and the view unobstructed, their march was observed from its commencement. They were suffered to approach in silence and unmolested, until within 300 yards of the lines. This period of suspense and expectation was employed by General Jackson and his officers in stationing every man at his post, and arranging everything for the decisive event. When the British columns had

advanced within 300 yards of the lines, the whole artillery at once opened upon them a most deadly fire. Forty pieces of cannon, deeply charged with grape, canister, and musket balls, mowed them down by hundreds; at the same time the batteries on the west bank opened their fire, while the riflemen, in perfect security behind their works, as the British advanced, took deliberate aim, and nearly every shot took effect. Through this destructive fire the British left column, under the immediate orders of the commander-in-chief, rushed on with their fascines and scaling-ladders to the advance bastion on the American right, and succeeded in mounting the parapet; here, after a close conflict with the bayonet, they succeeded in obtaining possession of the bastion, when the battery planted in the rear for its protection, opened its fire and drove the British from the ground. On the American left, the British attempted to pass the swamp and gain the rear, but the works had been extended as far into the swamp as the ground would permit. Some who attempted it sunk into the mire and disappeared; those behind, seeing the fate of their companions, seasonably retreated and gained the hard ground. The assault continued an hour and a quarter: during the whole time the British were exposed to the deliberate and destructive fire of the American artillery and musketry, which lay in perfect security behind their earthen breastworks, through which no balls could penetrate. At 8 o'clock, the British columns drew off in confusion, and retreated behind their works. Flushed with success, the militia were eager to pursue the British troops to their intrenchments, and drive them immediately from the island. A less prudent and accomplished general might have been induced to yield to the indiscreet ardor of his troops; but General Jackson understood too well the nature both of his own and his enemy's force to hazard such an attempt. Defeat must inevitably have attended an assault made by raw militia upon an intrenched camp of British regulars. The defence of New Orleans was the object; nothing was to be hazarded which would jeopardize the city. The British were suffered to retire behind their works without molestation. The result was such as might be expected from the different positions of the two armies. General Packenham, near the crest of the glacis, received a ball in his knee. Still continuing to lead on his men, another shot pierced his body, and he was carried off the field. Nearly at the same time, Major-General Gibbs, the second in command, within a few yards of the lines, received a mortal wound, and was removed. The third in command, Major-General Keane, at the head of his troops near the glacis, was severely wounded. The three commanding generals, on marshaling their troops at 5 o'clock in the morning, promised them a plentiful dinner in New Orleans, and gave them *Booby and Beauty* as the parole and countersign of the day. Before 8 o'clock the three generals were carried off the field, two in the agonies of death, and the third entirely disabled; leaving upwards of 2000 of their men, dead, dying, and wounded, on the field of battle. Colonel Raynor, who commanded the forlorn hope which stormed the American bastion on the right, as he was leading his men up, had the calf of his leg carried away by a cannon shot. Disabled as he was, he was the first to mount the parapet, and receive the American bayonet. Seven hundred were killed on the field, 1400 wounded, and 500 made prisoners, making a total on that day of 2600. But 6 Americans were killed and 7 wounded. Of General Morgan's detachment on the west bank, and in a sortie on the British lines, 49 were killed, and 178 wounded.

After the battle, General Lambert, who had arrived from England but two days before, and was now the only surviving general, requested a truce for the

purpose of burying his dead. This was granted until 4 o'clock in the afternoon of the 9th. Lines were drawn 100 rods distant from the American camp, within which the British were not permitted to approach. In the ditch, and in front of the works, within the prescribed lines, 482 British dead were picked up by the American troops, and delivered to their companions over the lines for burial. The afternoon of the 8th, and the whole of the 9th, was spent by the British army in burying their dead. The American sentinels guarding the lines during this interval, frequently repeated in the hearing of the British, while tumbling their companions by hundreds into pits, "Six killed, seven wounded."

Retreat of the British.—On the night of the 18th, they broke up their encampment, and commenced their retreat to the place of their first landing. To accomplish this with safety, it was necessary that the army should move in one body. With this view, immediately after the battle of the 8th, large working parties had been employed in constructing a road through a quagmire, for a considerable distance along the margin of the bayou: by binding together large quantities of reeds, and laying them across the mire; in the course of nine days, these parties had constructed something resembling a road from their encampment to the place of debarkation. Along this insecure track the British army silently stole their march in the night of the 18th of January. By the treading of the first corps, the bundles of reeds gave way, and their followers had to wade up to their knees in mire. Several perished in the sloughs, the darkness of the night preventing their companions from affording relief. At the mouth of the bayou were a few huts, which afforded shelter for fishermen in the season of catching fish for the New Orleans market; here the troops halted and bivouacked previous to their embarkation. Their provisions being exhausted, a few crumbs of biscuit and a small allowance of rum was their only support. Here they were 80 miles from their ships, the whole of which distance they had to traverse in small open boats; and having but few of these, the embarkation occupied ten days. On the 27th, the whole land and naval forces which remained of this disastrous expedition, to their great joy, found themselves on board their ships. Their ranks thinned, their chiefs and many of their companions slain, their bodies emaciated with hunger, fatigue, and sickness, they gladly quitted this inauspicious country. The surviving commanding general observes, "that the services of both army and navy, since their landing on this coast, have been arduous beyond anything he ever before witnessed, and difficulties have been gotten over with an assiduity and perseverance beyond example by all ranks." A British officer of distinction, an actor in the scene, thus describes his tour from the encampment to the embarkation: "For some time our route lay along the high road beside the brink of the river, and was agreeable enough; but as soon as we began to enter upon the path through the marsh, all comfort was at an end. Being constructed of materials so slight, and resting upon a foundation so infirm, the treading of the first corps unavoidably beat it to pieces: those which followed were therefore compelled to flounder on in the best way they could; and by the time the rear of the column gained the morass, all trace of a way had entirely disappeared. But not only were the reeds torn asunder and sunk by the pressure of those who had gone before, but the bog itself, which at first might have furnished a few spots of firm footing, was trodden into the consistency of mud. The consequence was, that every step sunk us to the knees, and frequently higher. Near the ditches, indeed, many spots occurred which we had the utmost difficulty of crossing at all; and as the night was dark, there being no moon, nor any light, except

what the stars supplied, it was difficult to select our steps, or even to follow those who called to us that they were safe on the other side. At one of these places, I myself beheld an unfortunate wretch gradually sink, until he totally disappeared. I saw him flounder in, heard him cry for help, and ran forward with the intention of saving him ; but before I had taken a second step, I myself sunk at once as high as the breast. I could feel no solid bottom under me, and continued slowly to go deeper and deeper till the mud reached my arms. Instead of endeavoring to help the poor soldier, of whom nothing now could be seen except the head and hands, I was forced to beg assistance for myself, when a leathern canteen strap being thrown me, I laid hold of it, and was dragged out just as my fellow-sufferer became invisible. Over roads such as these did we continue our march during the whole of the night, and in the morning arrived at a place called Fishermen's huts, consisting of a clump of mud-built cottages, standing by the edge of the water, on a part of the morass rather more firm than the rest. Here we were ordered to halt ; wearied with exertions and oppressed with want of sleep, I threw myself on the ground without so much as taking off my muddy garments, and in an instant all cares and troubles were forgotten. Nor did I awake from that deep slumber for many hours ; when I arose, cold and stiff, and addressed myself to the last morsel of salt pork my wallet contained. Without tents or huts of any description, our bed was the morass, and our only covering the clothes which had not quitted our backs for more than a month ; our fires were composed solely of reeds, which, like straw, soon blaze up and expire again, without communicating any degree of warmth. But, above all, our provisions were expended, and from what quarter an immediate supply was to be obtained, we could not discover. Our sole dependence was upon the boats. Of these a flotilla lay ready to receive us, in which were already embarked the black corps and the 44th ; but they had brought with them only food for their own use, it was therefore necessary that they should reach the fleet and return again before we could be supplied. But as the nearest shipping was 80 miles distant, and the weather might become boisterous, or the winds obstinate, we might starve before any supply could arrive. As soon as the boats returned, regiment after regiment embarked and set sail for the fleet ; but the distance being considerable, and the wind foul, many days elapsed before the whole could be got off ; by the end of the month, we were all once more on board our former ships."

TEXAS.

Area,	247,356 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	604,215
(Whites, 421,294 ; Negroes, 182,921.)	
Population in 1870,	818,579

THE State of Texas lies between $25^{\circ} 50'$ and $36^{\circ} 30'$ N. latitude, and between $93^{\circ} 30'$ and 107° W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by the Indian Territory and New Mexico, on the east by Arkansas, Louisiana, and the Gulf of Mexico, on the south by the Gulf of Mexico and the Republic of Mexico, and on the west by the Republic of Mexico and the Territory of New Mexico. It is very irregular in shape, and is the largest of the States. Its extreme length, from northwest to southeast, is estimated at 800 miles, and its extreme width, from east to west, at 750 miles.

TOPOGRAPHY.

"This great State embraces every variety of surface, mountain, plain, hill, and desert within its limits. In the southeast, along the coast is a level belt of land, from 30 to 60 miles in breadth, which is succeeded by an undulating and prairie country, occupying another belt of from 150 to 200 miles in width, which is followed in the west and northwest by the mountainous region and the table-land. The extreme north is invaded by the Great American Desert, which extends, perhaps, about 60 miles within the boundary of Texas. According to Mr. Bartlett, the pleateau of Texas, including part of New Mexico, extends from 30° to 34° N. latitude, and from the Rio Grande east for 300 miles. The north portion, called Llano Estacado or 'Staked Plain,' is 2500 feet above the sea. This broad district is des-



ON THE GULF.

titute of forest trees and shrubbery, except along the margins of the streams, and even there never extending 100 yards from the banks. Just after rains a short stunted grass springs up, but speedily becomes dry, affording little nourishment. In this region rise the Red, Brazos, and Colorado rivers. About $29^{\circ} 30'$ N. latitude the table-land breaks off into spurs, which descends to the prairies. The rivers have generally alluvial bottoms of from 3 to 20 miles in width, which are of great fertility, and heavily timbered. The belts referred to above run across the State in a direction nearly northeast and southwest, so that almost all the northern part of Eastern Texas is included in the second division, or the undulating country. Little is known of the elevated lands of the west and northwest, as they are yet the home of few white men except the hunters, who pursue its buffaloes and other wild

animals. It is, however, represented as being a well-watered and fertile region. A low range of mountains, called the Colorado Hills, runs in a northern and southern direction, east of the Colorado River; indeed, the whole section of the State in the same parallel, between the Colorado and the Brazos rivers, is broken with low mountains. Between the Colorado and the Rio Grande, and north of the sources of the Nueces and San Antonio, the country is crossed by broken ranges of mountains, running in various directions, but of whose altitude and character we have little reliable information. They appear, however, to be outlying ridges of the great Rocky Mountain chain. Of these the Organ, Hueco or Waco, and Guadalupe Mountains extend from the northwestern extremity of Texas, where they terminate, in a northern direction into New Mexico. According to Bartlett, the first are about 3000 feet above the Rio Grande, and the last the same altitude above the plain.

"The coast of Texas is lined with a chain of low islands, which form a series of bays, sounds, and lagoons; the most important of which are Galveston, Matagorda, Espiritu Santo, Aransas, and Corpus Christi bays, and the Laguna del Madre. Commencing at Galveston Bay, in the northeast, they lie along the Gulf of Mexico in the order in which they are named. Galveston Bay, the largest of these, extends about 35 miles inland from the Gulf of Mexico, in a direction nearly north. Matagorda Bay, 60 miles long by 6 to 10 wide, and Laguna del Madre, 90 miles long by 3 to 6 wide, are sounds rather than bays, and run nearly parallel with the shore. The inlets of these are much obstructed by bars; Galveston Inlet, the best, is said to have but 12 feet water, the entrance of Matagorda Bay 11 feet, and that of San Luis but 10 feet. Aransas Bay extends in a northeastern and southwestern direction about 25 miles, by about 12 miles in width; Corpus Christi Bay, 40 miles from north to south, by 20 miles from east to west; and Espiritu Santo is 20 miles long by 10 wide; Copano Bay, opening into Aransas, is 20 miles long by 3 wide. A writer in 'De Bow's Resources in the South and West,' however, says—'Steamships of 1200 to 1500 tons, and sail vessels of 1000 tons, can enter the port of Galveston.' Texas is crossed by several long rivers, generally rising in the table-lands of the west and northwest, and pursuing a southeastern course, discharge their waters into the Gulf of Mexico. Commencing with the Rio Grande, the largest river in Texas, 1800 miles long, and which forms its southwestern boundary, and proceeding along the coast, we have the Nueces, San Antonio,

Guadalupe, Colorado, Brazos, Trinity, Neches, and Sabine, whose lengths, in the order named, are about 300, 250, 275, 800, 500, 400, 300, and 350 miles, as estimated by measurements on the map. The Red River rises in the northwest of the State, and forms a large part of the northern boundary line. The Canadian, a branch of the Arkansas, crosses the northern projection of the State. All of these are navigable to a greater or less extent, (depending on the wetness or dryness of the season, and on local obstructions,) the Sabine for about 150 miles; the Trinity, to Porter's Bluffs, latitude $32^{\circ} 20'$; the San Jacinto, 50 miles; the Brazos, to Sullivan's Shoals, near latitude 31° N.; the Nueces, 100 miles; the Rio Grande, 400 miles; and the Red River, to Preston, latitude 34° N., and longitude $96^{\circ} 20'$ W.; (during high water.) The Colorado is obstructed by a raft 10 miles from its mouth; but when this is removed, which it doubtless will be ere long, it will give a navigation of several hundred miles. There are a number of small rivers or tributaries, navigable to some extent, and besides their value as channels of commerce, they afford in many instances excellent sites for mill seats. There are no known lakes of importance in Texas. Sabine Lake, an expansion of the river of that name, near its mouth, 20 miles long, is on the boundary of Texas and Louisiana. There is a salt lake near the Rio Grande, from which large quantities of salt are annually taken."*

MINERALS, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTS.

The Hon. Henry S. Randall, of New York, in a paper lately contributed to *The Rural New Yorker*, thus describes the mineral and agricultural productions of the State:

"GEOLOGY.—The lower and rolling lands are alluvial. The hilly region is cretaceous, and abounds in excellent limestone for building. Beyond this, primitive rocks appear in many places. The great plains consist of stratified clay and cretaceous marls. On the verge of these plains are deposits of gypsum extending over an area of thousands of square miles. Coal beds exist in different localities. Iron ores are found in inexhaustible quantities on the Llano River, and they abound on tributaries of Red River in northeastern Texas. Copper has been discovered in different places, and also specimens of the precious metals. The mineral regions of the State have been so little explored, that the extent of its resources in this respect are but be-

* Lippincott's Gazetteer, p. 1905.

ginning to be known. Various salt springs have been found, and salt of good quality, produced by natural evaporation, can be obtained in immense if not inexhaustible quantities at the salt lagunes below Corpus Christi, and at the salt lake in Hidalgo county, forty miles from the Rio Grande.

“CLIMATE.—As a sample of the climate, we give the mean temperature of every month in the year 1859, as observed by Professor C. G. Forshey, in Fayette county, on the Colorado, in latitude 30° : January, $50^{\circ} 57'$; February, $62^{\circ} 44'$; March, $61^{\circ} 50'$; April, $65^{\circ} 31'$; May, $75^{\circ} 61'$; June, $81^{\circ} 56'$; July, $84^{\circ} 76'$; August, $84^{\circ} 90'$; September, $79^{\circ} 42'$; October, $66^{\circ} 29'$; November, $63^{\circ} 92'$; December, 43° ; annual mean, $68^{\circ} 04'$.

“‘In point of climate,’ says Olmsted, ‘Texas claims, with at least as much justice as any other State, to be called the Italy of America. The general average of temperature corresponds, and the skies are equally clear and glowing. The peculiarities over other climates of latitude are found in its unwavering summer sea-breeze and its winter northers. The first is a delightful alleviation of its summer heats, flowing in each day from the Gulf, as the sun’s rays become oppressive, and extending remotely inland to the farthest settlements, with the same trustworthy steadiness. It continues through the evening, and is described as having so great effect that, however oppressive the day may have been, the nights are always cool enough to demand a blanket and yield invigorating rest.’

“The severe northers occur from December to April, and usually occupy not much over 40 days. The rapid reduction of the temperature from 70 or 75 degrees, to 30 or 40 degrees, and the driving wind, are keenly felt. When most cold and violent, and accompanied with rain and sleet, they sometimes cause considerable destruction among domestic animals exposed to their fury. These instances, however, are rare, and the shelter of a grove or hill, or even a good farm wall, is sufficient to prevent such consequences. They are regarded as healthful and invigorating, and, notwithstanding the sudden change of temperature accompanying them, do not cause, or even exasperate, pulmonary diseases. It is claimed that consumption does not originate in the region where they prevail.

“As in all new, warm, and highly fertile countries, the low, rich river bottoms—especially those of southern Texas, which are covered with a boundless profusion of semi-tropical vegetation—are not healthy to unacclimated persons. The higher lands between those

rivers are usually considered healthy, where judicious dispositions are made by the emigrant; but the Northern emigrant runs some risk of undergoing a 'seasoning' course of chills and fever. The hilly regions of the west are as free from malaria as any other new countries we ever heard of—far more so, we judge, than were large portions of Ohio, Illinois, and Michigan, when first settled. We have known of hundreds of people from the Northern, Middle, and Western States, who have emigrated to the sheep-region, presently to be described, and we scarcely remember of hearing of one who incurred any disease in the process of acclimation. Great numbers of invalids, especially of consumptive invalids, from the older Southern States, resort to the region around San Antonio for the improvement of their health. The native Mexicans used to tell a story in regard to its healthfulness which has a regular *Yankee* smack to it. They said some travellers approaching San Antonio met three disconsolate looking persons who were hastening away from the city. They asked them what was the matter, and where they were going. The three disconsolate looking persons replied that they had met with reverses, that they wished to die, and were going to some place where people *could* die.

"Yellow fever is imported into the coast towns, as it is imported into New York and Philadelphia, but it does not originate in them. Its ravages, as would be expected in such a climate, are sometimes severe; but it does not penetrate into the hilly region any more than it penetrates into the interior of New York or Pennsylvania.

"SOILS AND PRODUCTS.—In the north, the rich, black soil is especially adapted to the production of wheat, yielding in ordinary seasons, and under the very imperfect cultivation it receives, an average of 21 bushels to the acre. It is of superior quality, and very heavy—in occasional instances reaching 72 pounds to the bushel. The wheat region proper embraces about 30 counties, of which Dallas is the centre.

"The eastern counties, unlike the rest of the State, were covered by forests. The most northerly of these are highly adapted to a diversified husbandry. . . . The southeastern and central southern counties are the most fertile in Texas, and include the best cotton-growing region of anything like an equal area in the world. The cotton counties proper constitute about one-third of the State. . . . Sugar has been produced to considerable extent near the mouths of the Brazos and Colorado. The soil of western Texas, exclusive of the barren region between the Nueces and the Rio Grande, consists generally of black, calcareous loam, and its pasturages are probably unequalled by any other natural ones in the world. . . .

. . . . "Corn, wheat, oats, rye, barley, buckwheat, millet, sorghum, Irish potatoes, sweet potatoes, peas, beans, turnips, pumpkins, and garden vegetables of every kind, produce remunerative, and some of them abundant, crops on all the good soils of the State, and from many of them two crops might be taken in a season. Fruits can be grown in boundless profusion. . . . Horses, neat cattle, sheep, and hogs require so little artificial food that they can be raised at the most trifling expense."

In 1869 there were 2,650,781 acres of improved land in the State. The returns for the same year were as follows:

Bushels of wheat,	1,250,000
" Indian corn,	23,000,000
" peas and beans,	341,961
" sweet potatoes (estimated),	1,500,000
" oats,	1,250,000
Bales of cotton,	465,000
Pounds of butter,	5,850,583
Number of horses,	600,000
" asses and mules,	93,800
" milch cows,	640,320
" sheep,	998,972
" swine,	1,580,600
" young cattle,	2,540,300
Value of domestic animals,	\$49,825,447

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

Texas has a large and profitable trade with the Northern States, and with Mexico, and some European commerce. In 1860 the exports of the State amounted to \$6,783,934, and the imports to \$2,436,408.

Manufactures receive but little attention. In 1870 the capital invested in them amounted to \$5,284,110. The annual product was valued at \$11,517,302.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

Considering that Texas was but recently settled, and that it is still very sparsely populated, we must admit that it has made very decided progress in internal improvements. Good roads connect the various parts of the State, and there is railroad communication between Madison, on the Sabine River, and Houston, Austin, and Galveston. A railroad is in progress across southern Louisiana, from the Sabine River

to New Orleans. In 1872 the State contained 865 miles of railroad, constructed at a cost of about \$30,000,000.

EDUCATION.

In 1870, Texas contained 8 colleges, with 588 students; 527 academies and other schools, with over 20,000 pupils; and 13 public schools with 800 pupils. There was a Board of Education for the State, which controlled the system. The Superintendent of Public Instruction, in 1868, wrote as follows concerning the schools of his State: "There is no school system in Texas, and the school fund which had been accumulating, was mainly ruined and dissipated by the war. A plan for free schools, in essentials similar to the systems of the States of the North and West, has been submitted to the Reconstruction Committee, now in session, and strong hopes are entertained of its adoption. The number of children who should be at school in Texas, exceeds 200,000; the number actually enjoying school privileges is about 20,000."

Since 1868 a public school system similar to that of the other States has been adopted, but had not gone into operation in 1870. The permanent school fund of the State amounts to \$2,575,000, nearly all of which is available.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The State Penitentiary is located at Huntsville. It was erected in 1848. We have no recent returns from it.

The Texas Institution for the Deaf and Dumb is located on the west bank of the Colorado River, opposite the city of Austin. It is in great need of suitable buildings, and is sadly embarrassed by the unsettled condition of the State. In 1868 it contained 22 pupils.

There are also a *Blind Asylum* and a *State Lunatic Asylum* in operation, both of which are supported by the State.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870 there were 647 churches in Texas, and the value of church property was \$1,035,430.

FINANCES.

The finances of Texas are in a prosperous condition. The State debt, January 1st, 1875, amounted to about \$4,012,421. The resources

of the State are amply sufficient to meet its liabilities. The receipts from September, 1867, to April 16th, 1870, were \$1,384,190, and the expenditures for the same period, \$1,024,891, leaving an unexpended balance in the Treasury of \$379,531. Adding the balance of the Convention fund still on hand, the cash balance in the Treasury amounted to \$416,709.

GOVERNMENT.

Until the latter part of the year 1869, the State constituted a part of the Fifth Military District. Between the 30th of November, and 3d of December, 1869, the people by their votes ratified the new Constitution, and on the 30th of March, 1870, the State was readmitted into the Union.

By the terms of the new Constitution, every male citizen of the United States, 21 years of age, except criminals, lunatics, and Indians not taxed, without regard to race, color, or previous condition, who has resided in the State one year, and in the county six months, is entitled to vote at the elections.

The Government consists of a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, and Comptroller; and a Legislature, consisting of a Senate of 30 members, and a House of Representatives of 90 members, all elected by the people.

The highest judicial tribunal is the Supreme Court, consisting of three judges. The State is divided into 35 judicial districts, for each of which, a District Judge is elected, who is required to hold three terms of his court annually, in each county of his district. There are also Justices of the Peace, with jurisdiction in petty cases, who try causes by themselves, or with a jury of 6 men.

For the purpose of repressing crime and lawlessness, there is a State police force, consisting of 4 captains, 8 lieutenants, 20 sergeants, and 225 privates. The Adjutant-General of the State acts as Chief of this police. All sheriffs, their deputies, constables, marshals of cities and towns, their deputies, and the police of cities and towns, are made *ex-officio* members of this force, and as such are at all times subject to the orders of the Governor, or of the Adjutant-General, for the purpose of preventing crime or arresting offenders. The chief and the whole force are subject to the orders of the Governor. For the protection of the settlers against the Indians, companies of rangers are maintained on the frontier, at the expense of the State. Home-

steads of not more than 200 acres in the country, and a lot or lots not in a village or town exceeding \$5000 in value, exclusive of the value of the improvements, are exempted from executions for debt. Liberal inducements in offers of land are held out to actual settlers. The lands thus offered are among the finest in the State.

For purposes of Government the State is divided into 124 counties. The seat of government is located at Austin.

HISTORY.

Texas was first settled by a colony of French under La Salle. It was the intention of the leader of this expedition to found a colony near the mouth of the Mississippi, but sailing past it through mistake, he entered Matagorda Bay, and ascended the Lavaca for five or six miles, where he built Fort St. Louis, about the year 1686. After enduring many hardships, he was murdered by his men on the 20th of March, 1687. When the Indians heard of his death, they attacked the fort, the garrison of which had been much reduced by quarrels among themselves, captured it, and killed all its defenders but four, whom they carried into captivity. In April, 1689, a Spanish expedition arrived in Matagorda Bay for the purpose of driving away the French, but found the fort destroyed. A few years later several settlements were made in Texas by the Spaniards, but in consequence of the hostilities of the Indians, they abandoned them. In 1712, Louis XIV. of France, granted the province, which he claimed, to Crozat, to whom he had granted Louisiana. This act so alarmed the Spanish authorities in Mexico that they at once made numerous settlements in Texas, in order to secure the territory in advance of the French, who in 1721 made an unsuccessful effort to expel them. In 1728, 400 families were sent out to Texas from the Canary Isles by the Spanish Government, and were joined in that country by others from Mexico. These settlers founded the city of San Antonio. The Indians of Texas and Louisiana proved very troublesome for some time, but were defeated in a great battle by the Spaniards, in 1732, and quieted for some years. During the American Revolution, the authorities of Texas, after the declaration of war against England by Spain in 1779, carried on active hostilities against the British on the Mississippi. During this period prosperous trade was carried on *viâ* Nacogdoches, between the Spanish settlement of Natchez, in Mississippi, and the interior of Texas, and was finally the means of making this State known to the Americans.

In 1803 Louisiana passed into the hands of the United States, and in 1819, a treaty between this country and Spain, fixed the Sabine River as the eastern boundary of Texas upon the Gulf. In 1806, the population numbered 7000 souls, a number of whom were Américans.

"West of the Sabine was a tract called the 'Neutral Ground,' which was occupied by bands of outlaws and desperate men, who lived as buccaneers, by robbery and plunder, perpetrated upon the traders. The Spanish authorities had endeavored to expel them, but could not. The United States sent a force against them, and drove them away; but they returned again, and renewed their depredations. About this time, Lieutenant A. W. Magee, a native of Massachusetts, who had commanded an expedition against these outlaws, conceived the idea of conquering Texas to the Rio Grande, and establishing a republican Government. The enterprise was undertaken in the name of Don Bernardo Gutierrez, though Magee was in reality at the head of the movement. The freebooters of the neutral ground joined his standard, in June, 1812. The civil war at this time raging in Mexico favored the designs of Magee, who had with him nearly every able-bodied man east of the Trinity. He crossed the Colorado with about 800 men. At this point, he learned that Salcedo, the royalist Governor of Texas, had come out against him as far as the Guadalupe, with 1400 men, where he lay in ambush. Magee then made a forced march, and reached La Bahia on the 14th of November, which was surrendered to him with but little opposition. Here Magee was besieged by Salcedo for three weeks. Previous to the last assault, Magee agreed to deliver up the fort and return home. When this agreement was made known to the army, it was unanimously voted down. Major Kemper, the next in command, took the lead. Magee, deeply mortified, retired to his tent, and, it is said, died by his own hand a little after midnight. The Spaniards withdrew to San Antonio, after having continued the siege till the 12th of March, 1813.

"The Americans, being reinforced, marched on San Antonio. When within about nine miles of that place, they came upon the Spanish army, under Governor Salcedo, about 2500 strong, being about double the number of the Americans. The battle of *Rosalis* ensued, nearly 1000 of the Spaniards were slain, and some few taken prisoners. The next day, Governor Salcedo surrendered, and being put in charge of a company of Bexar Mexicans to be transported to New Orleans, he, with 13 other officers, among whom was ex-Gov-

ernors Herrera and Cordero, were taken to the bank of the river below the town, where they were stripped and tied, and their throats cut! Colonel Kemper, Major Ross, and others, being disgusted with such treachery and barbarity, left the army and returned home. Captain Perry now took the command, and on the night of June 4th, attacked and routed an army of over 2000 sent against them. The republicans, however, were finally defeated by another army, under General Arredondo, on the Medina, with great slaughter. Only 93 Americans reached Natchitoches, among whom were Colonel Perry and Captains Taylor and Ballard. The Spaniards being successful, in revenge, committed horrid atrocities upon the friends of the republican party. Thus ended the first effort at Texan independence.

"In February, 1819, in a treaty with Spain, the Floridas were ceded to the United States, and the Sabine agreed upon as the boundary of the Spanish possessions. Texas thus being relinquished for Florida, a far less valuable territory, gave much dissatisfaction to the southern portion of the people of the United States. Early in 1819, Dr. James Long raised a company in Natchez, of 75 men, and proceeded to Nacogdoches, and on his arrival, being joined by Colonel Davenport and Bernardo Gutierrez, his command was increased to 300. A provisional Government was then formed, and Texas was declared to be a '*free and independent republic*.' They also enacted laws, and fixed the price of lands, those on Red River being estimated at a dollar per acre. They also established the first printing office, Horatio Bigelow being the editor of the paper. General Long posted a few troops at the crossing of the Trinity, the falls of the Brazos, and at other places; he also dispatched Colonel Gaines to Galveston, in order to obtain the coöperation of Lafitte, the freebooter, in the revolution. This was declined, Lafitte stating the forces were entirely inadequate for the purpose. Meantime, the royalists, under Colonel Parez, came and took the post on the Brazos, with 11 prisoners, October 11th, 1819, and on the 15th they took La Bahia (now Goliad), and afterwards the post on the Trinity, and then proceeded to Nacogdoches, General Long and his men having barely made their escape to the Sabine. Parez proceeded to Cooshattie village, and about 40 miles below that place, after a severe conflict with the republicans, routed them. The latter fled to Bolivar Point, near Galveston, where General Long afterwards joined them.

"General Long appears to have continued his head-quarters at Bolivar Point for some time; meanwhile Lafitte was obliged to leave Gal-

veston. On the day on which he left, General Long, with Colonel Milam and others, came over from Bolivar Point and dined with Lafitte. Soon after, Long, Milam, and Trespalacios, collecting their forces, sailed with them down the coast. General Long landed near the mouth of the San Antonio, and proceeding with a party took possession of La Bahia. Milam and Trespalacios soon after went to Mexico, in order to raise funds from the Republican Government, for at this time the revolutionary cause was gaining ground in Mexico. Notwithstanding this, it appears that the royalists succeeded in capturing General Long soon after, when he was sent to the city of Mexico, and then set at liberty, and finally assassinated. The wife of General Long, who remained at Bolivar Point during the absence of her husband, having heard of his death, returned to her friends in the United States.

"In December, 1820, Moses Austin, a native of Connecticut, but for some time a resident of Missouri, set out for San Antonio de Bexar, to solicit the sanction of the Government, and to procure a tract of land, for the settlement of an Anglo-American colony in Texas. On presenting himself to the Governor, he was, according to the Spanish regulations respecting foreigners, ordered to leave the province immediately. On crossing the public square, he accidentally met the Baron de Bastrop, with whom he had a slight acquaintance in the United States, many years before. By his influence he obtained a second interview with the Governor, the result of which was that his petition to introduce 300 American families into Texas was recommended and forwarded to the proper authorities in Mexico. It was granted in January, 1821. Mr. Austin returned before its fate was known, and died shortly afterward. He left special injunctions to his son, *Stephen F. Austin*, to carry out his cherished plan to establish a colony.

"On July 21, 1821, Stephen F. Austin, accompanied by Senor Seguin and seventeen pioneers, entered the wilderness of Texas to lay the foundation of her present prosperity. He explored various parts, and after meeting with losses and difficulties, located his colony on the Brazos. Austin soon repaired to San Antonio, to report to the Governor, who appears to have been friendly to the enterprise. When he arrived there, in March, 1822, he learned, with much regret, that it was necessary to make a journey to the city of Mexico, to procure a grant from the supreme authorities. On the 29th of April ensuing, Colonel Austin arrived in Mexico, and succeeded in obtaining from Iturbide, then emperor, a confirmation of the grant made to his father.

When about to return to Texas, Iturbide was overthrown, and his acts declared null and void. Austin was again obliged to apply to the reigning authorities, who renewed the grant, and in effect clothed him with almost sovereign power. In conjunction with Baron Bastrop, Austin fixed his colonial capital on the Brazos, calling it *San Felipe de Austin*.

"When the Mexican Government, in 1825, abolished slavery within her limits, most of the settlers in Texas being planters from the Southern States, who had brought their slaves with them, felt themselves aggrieved, and petitioned the Mexican congress in vain for relief. On the establishment of *Centralism*, under Santa Anna, Texas, in 1835, declared her independence. In 1836, Santa Anna, President of Mexico, with a force of several thousand men, moved forward, threatening to exterminate the Americans, or to drive them from the soil of Texas. In March, San Antonio de Bexar was besieged; the Alamo there, defended by only 187 Americans, was carried by storm, and all slain; among them were Colonel Travis, Colonel David Crockett and Colonel Bowie, the inventor of the *bowie-knife*. While Santa Anna was engaged at San Antonio, General Urrea marched upon Goliad. He had a severe contest with Colonel Fannin's troops, who, on March 20th, surrendered themselves as prisoners of war. Nine days afterward the Texan prisoners, to the number of 330, were led out and massacred in cold blood.

"On the 7th of April, 1836, Santa Anna arrived at San Felipe with the divisions of Sesma and Tolsa. He proceeded down the west bank of the Brazos, crossed the river at Richmond, and on the 16th reached Harrisburg. The Texans, under General Houston, now reduced to less than 800 men, retiring before his advance, proceeded down the bank of the Buffalo Bayou, and took a position near the River San Jacinto. On the 21st of April, 1836, Santa Anna, with a force of over 1700 men, being encamped near General Houston, was attacked by the Texans. When within about 600 yards, the Mexican line opened their fire upon them, but the Texans, nothing daunted, pressed on to a close conflict, which lasted about 18 minutes, when the enemy gave way, and were totally routed, nearly every man was either killed, wounded, or taken prisoner. The Texan loss was but 2 killed, and 23 wounded. This victory secured the independence of Texas.

"In 1841, President Lamar organized what has been termed the 'Santa Fe Expedition,' the object of which was to open trade with Santa Fe, and to establish Texan authority, in accordance with the

treaty of Santa Anna, over all the territory east of the Rio Grande. Santa Fe, lying east of that river, was still in possession of the Mexicans. On the 18th of June, the expedition, numbering 325 men, under General M'Leod, left Austin, the capital of Texas, and after a journey of about three months, arrived at the Spanish settlements in New Mexico. They were intercepted by a vastly superior force, and surrendered on condition of their being allowed to return; but instead of this, they were bound with ropes and leather thongs, in gangs of six or eight, stripped of most of their clothing, and marched to the city of Mexico, a distance of 1200 miles. On their route, they were treated with cruelty, beaten, and insulted; forced to march at times by night as well as by day; blinded by sand, parched by thirst, and famishing with hunger.

"Having arrived at Mexico in the latter part of December, they were, by the orders of Santa Anna, thrown into filthy prisons. After a while, part were compelled to labor as common scavengers in the streets of the city; while others were sent to the stone quarries of Pueblo, where, under brutal taskmasters, they labored with heavy chains fastened to their limbs. Of the whole number, three were murdered on the march; several died of ill-treatment and hardship; some few escaped, some were pardoned, and nearly all eventually released.

"Soon after the result of this expedition was known, rumors prevailed of an intended invasion of Texas. In September, 1842, 1200 Mexicans, under General Woll, took the town of Bexar; but subsequently retreated beyond the Rio Grande. A Texan army was collected, who were zealous to carry the war into Mexico. After various disappointments and the return of most of the volunteers, 300 Texans crossed the Rio Grande and attacked the town of Mier, which was garrisoned by more than 2000 Mexicans strongly posted. In a dark, rainy night, they drove in the guard, and in spite of a constant fire of the enemy, effected a lodgment in some houses in the suburbs, and with the aid of the deadly rifle fought their way into the heart of the place. At length, Ampudia sent a white flag, which was accompanied by General La Vega and other officers, to inform the Texans of the utter hopelessness of resistance against an enemy ten times their number. The little band at length very reluctantly surrendered, after a loss of only 35 in killed and wounded, while the Mexicans admitted theirs to have been over 500.

"The Texans, contrary to the stipulations, were marched to Mexico,

distant 1000 miles. On one occasion, 214 of them, although unarmed, rose upon their guard of over 300 men, overpowered and dispersed them, and commenced their journey homeward; but ignorant of the country and destitute of provisions, and being pursued by a large party, they were obliged to surrender. Every tenth man was shot for this attempt at escape. The others were thrown into the dungeons of Perote, where about 30 died of cruel treatment. A few escaped, and the remainder were eventually released.

"Early application was made by Texas to be annexed to the United States. Several years passed over without any serious attempts having been made by Mexico to regain Texas, and the political freedom of the country was thus considered as established. Presidents Jackson and Van Buren, in turn, objected on the ground of the unsettled boundary of Texas, and the peaceful relations with Mexico. President Tyler brought forward the measure, but it was lost in Congress. It having been the test question in the ensuing Presidential election, and the people deciding in its favor by the election of the Democratic candidates, Texas was annexed to the Union by a joint resolution of Congress, February 28, 1845.

"The Mexican Minister, Almonte, who had before announced that Mexico would declare war if Texas was annexed, gave notice that since America had consummated 'the most unjust act in her history,' negotiations were at an end.

"War with Mexico then ensued. The theatre of war in this State was on the Rio Grande. General Taylor, with the American troops, routed the Mexicans on the soil of Texas, at Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, and the arms of the United States were everywhere triumphant. The State Government was organized on the 19th of February, 1846. The boundary between New Mexico and Texas, the latter of which claimed the line of the Rio Grande, was adjusted by treaty in 1850.

"The joint resolution by which Texas was annexed to the Union gives permission for the erection of four additional States from its territory, and in these words—'New States, not exceeding four in number, in addition to said State of Texas, and having sufficient population, may hereafter, by the consent of said State, be formed out of the territory thereof, which shall be entitled to admission under the provisions of the Federal Constitution.'" *

* Barber's History of All the Western States.

On the 5th of February, 1861, the State seceded from the Union, and joined the Southern Confederacy. During the war it had comparative exemption from hostilities, except along the coast, where considerable suffering was experienced. At the close of the war a Provisional Government was erected, but was repudiated by Congress, and in 1867 the State was made a part of the 5th Military District, and continued under military rule until March, 1870, when it was readmitted into the Union.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

The principal cities and towns are, Galveston, Houston, San Antonio, Brownsville, and New Braunfels.

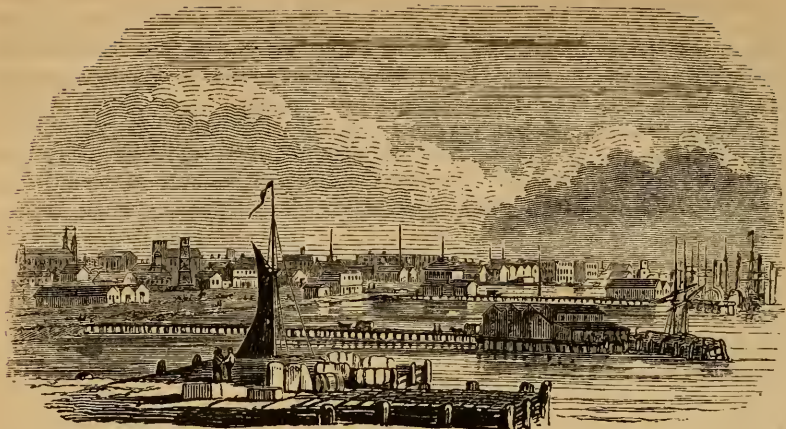
AUSTIN,

The capital of the State, is beautifully situated in Travis county, on the north bank of the Colorado, about 200 miles, by land, from its mouth, 230 miles west-northwest of Galveston, and about 1420 miles southwest of Washington. Latitude $30^{\circ} 15' N.$; longitude $97^{\circ} 47' W.$ The city is built on a plain elevated about 40 feet above the level of the river. It is well built, but owes its importance entirely to its being the seat of the State Government. The Colorado is navigable to Austin during the winter months, which constitute the season of navigation.

The city contains the public buildings of the State. The *Capitol* stands on an eminence at the head of Congress avenue, the main street of the city. It is a handsome building, and is constructed of an oolite, of a soft white color. It is built in the Ionic style of architecture. The *Governor's House* is a plain edifice of brick, on an eminence about 300 yards from the capitol. The *Treasury Department*, *Land Office*, and the *Lunatic*, *Blind*, and *Deaf and Dumb Asylums*, are fine buildings. The scenery in the vicinity of Austin is much admired. The city became the capital of Texas in 1844. In 1870 the population was 4428.

GALVESTON,

The largest city and the commercial metropolis of the State, is situated in the county of the same name, on Galveston Island at its eastern end, at the mouth of Galveston Bay. It is 230 miles east-southeast of Austin, and about 200 miles west of New Orleans. The island, which separates the bay from the Gulf of Mexico, is about 30 miles



GALVESTON

long and 3 miles broad. The surface is level, and its average elevation above the water is only about 4 feet. From Galveston City the bay extends to the northward for 35 miles to the mouth of Trinity River.

The harbor of Galveston is the best in the State, and at low tide has from 12 to 14 feet of water on the bar. Within the harbor the anchorage is ample and secure, and the city is supplied with a series of excellent wharves. Galveston is the seat of a large coasting trade, and has regular communication by steamship with New Orleans and New York, and steamboats navigate the Trinity and San Jacinto rivers, bringing the produce of the interior to the seaboard. There is railway communication with the principal towns of the State, and a railway is in progress which will connect Galveston with New Orleans.

MISCELLANY.

CAPTURE OF THE ALAMO.

The "Fall of the Alamo," like the famous defence of Thermopylæ, is an event that will long live among the heroic incidents of history. At 2 o'clock in the afternoon, February 23d, 1836, Santa Anna, with the 2d division of the Mexican army, marched into the town of San Antonio, having been preceded by an advance detachment the second day preceding. His army numbered several thousand strong, and comprised the choicest troops of his country. On the same day a regular siege of the Alamo commenced, and lasted eleven days, until the final assault. The Alamo was then garrisoned by 156 men, under Lieutenant-Colonel William Barret Travis, with Colonel James Bowie, second, as is believed, in command. Colonel David Crockett was also with the garrison, but it is unknown whether he had a command, as he had joined it only a few weeks before.

Santa Anna immediately demanded a surrender of the garrison, *without terms*. Their reply was a shot from the fort. He then raised a *blood red flag* on the church at Bexar, as a token of vengeance against the rebels, and began an attack, and this by slow approaches. Travis sent off an express with a strong appeal for aid, declaring that he would *never surrender nor retreat*. For many days no marked incidents occurred in the siege. On the 1st of March, 32 gallant men, from Gonzales, under Captain John W. Smith, entered the Alamo, and raised the effective force to 188 men. On the 2d, Travis sent out by a courier a last appeal, setting forth fully his determination to remain until he got relief or perished in the defence. About the same time he also wrote an affecting note to a friend: "Take care of my little boy. If the country should be saved, I may make him a splendid fortune; but if the country should be lost, and I should perish, he will have *nothing but the proud recollection that he is the son of a man who died for his country.*"

The account of the final assault, with the accompanying description of the Alamo, we take from the "Fall of the Alamo," a pamphlet by Captain R. M. Potter, published at San Antonio, in July, 1860. He had unusual opportunities for obtaining all that can be known of the final tragedy, the details of which have not been accurately given, for the reason that not a single defender survived it:

"Santa Anna, after calling a council of war on the 4th of March, fixed upon the morning of Sunday, the 6th, as the time for the final assault. Before narrating it, however, I must describe the Alamo as it then existed. It had been founded soon after the first settlement of the vicinity, and being originally built as a place of safety for the settlers and their property, in case of Indian hostility, with sufficient room for that purpose, it had neither the strength nor compactness, nor the arrangement of dominant points, which belong to a regular fortification.

"As its area contained between two and three acres, a thousand men would barely have sufficed to man its defences, and before a heavy siege train its walls would soon have crumbled.

"This work was not manned against the assault. According to Santa Anna's report, 21 guns of various calibres were planted in different parts of the works. Yoakum, in his description of the armament, mentions but 14. Whichever number be correct, however, has but little bearing upon the merits of the final defence, in which the cannon had little to do. They were in the hands of men unskilled in their use, and owing to the construction of the fort each had a limited range, which the enemy, in moving up, seem in a measure to have avoided.

"It was resolved by Santa Anna that the assault should take place at early dawn. The order for the attack, which I have read, but have no copy of, was full and precise in its details, and was signed by Brigadier-General Amador as head of the staff. The besieging force consisted of the battalions of Toluca, Jimenes, Matamoros, los Zapadores (or sappers), and another, which I think was that of Guerrero, and the dragoon regiment of Dolores. The infantry was directed at a certain hour, between midnight and dawn, to form at a convenient distance from the fort in four columns of attack and a reserve. This disposition was not made by battalions; for the light companies of all of them were incorporated with the Zapadores to form the reserve, and some other transpositions may have been made. A certain number of scaling ladders and axes were to be borne with particular columns. The cavalry were to be stationed at different points around the fortress to cut off fugitives. From what I have learned of men en-

gaged in the action, it seems that these dispositions were changed on the eve of attack, so far as to combine the five bodies of infantry into three columns of attack. This included the troops designated in the order as the reserve; and the only actual reserve that remained was the cavalry.

"The immediate command of the assault was entrusted to General Castrillon, a Spaniard by birth and a brilliant soldier. Santa Anna took his station, with a part of his staff and all the regimental bands, at a battery south of the Alamo and near the old bridge, from which the signal was to be given by a bugle note for the columns to move simultaneously, at double quick time, against different points of the fortress. One, composed mainly of the battalion of Toluca, was to enter the north breach—the other two to move against the southern side: one to attack the gate of the large area—the other to storm the chapel. By the timing of the signal, it was calculated that the columns would reach the foot of the wall just as it became light enough to operate.

"When the hour came, the batteries and the music were alike silent, and a single blast of the bugle was at first followed by no sound save the rushing tramp of soldiers. The guns of the fortress soon opened upon them, and then the bands at the south battery struck up the assassin note of *deguello*—'no quarter.' But a few and not very effective discharges from the works could be made before the enemy were under them. A sergeant of the Zapadores told me that the column he belonged to encountered but one discharge of grape in moving up, and that passed mostly over the men's heads; and it is thought that the worn and weary garrison was not till then fully mustered. The Toluca column arrived first at the foot of the wall, but was not the first to enter the area. A large piece of cannon at the northwest angle of the area probably commanded the breach. Either this, or the deadly fire of the riflemen at that point, where Travis commanded in person, brought the column to a disordered halt, and its leader, Colonel Duque, fell dangerously wounded. But, while this was occurring, one of the other columns entered the area by the gate, or by escalade near it. The defence of the outer walls had now to be abandoned; and the garrison took refuge in the buildings. It was probably while the enemy were pouring in through the breach that Travis fell at his post; for his body was found beside the gun just referred to. All this passed within a few minutes after the bugle sounded. The early loss of the outer barrier, so thinly manned, was inevitable; and it was not until the garrison became more concentrated and covered in the inner works, that the main struggle commenced. They were more concentrated as to the space, not as to unity; for there was no communicating between the buildings, nor in all cases between rooms. There was now no retreating from point to point; and each group of defenders had to fight and die in the den where it was brought to bay. From the doors, windows, and loopholes of the rooms around the area, the crack of the rifle and hiss of the bullet came fierce and fast: and the enemy fell and recoiled in his first efforts to charge. The gun beside which Travis lay was now turned against the buildings, as were also some others; and shot after shot in quick succession was sent crashing through the doors and barricades of the several rooms. Each ball was followed by a storm of musketry and a charge; and thus room after room was carried at the point of the bayonet, when all within them died fighting to the last. The struggle was made up of a number of separate and desperate combats, often hand to hand, between squads of the garrison and bodies of the enemy. The bloodiest spot about the fortress was the long barrack and the ground in front of it, where the enemy fell in heaps.

“In the meantime, the turning of Travis’ gun had been imitated by the garrison. A small piece on the roof of the chapel, or one of the other buildings, was turned against the area while the rooms were being stormed. It did more execution than any other cannon of the fortress; but after a few effective discharges, all who manned it fell under the enemy’s fire. Crockett had taken refuge in a room of the low barrack near the gate. He either garrisoned it alone, or was left alone by the fall of his companions, when he sallied to meet his fate in the face of the foe, and was shot down. Bowie had been severely hurt by a fall from a platform, and, when the attack came on, was confined to his bed in an upper room of the barrack. He was there killed on his couch, but not without resistance; for he is said to have shot down with his pistols one or more of the enemy as they entered the chamber.

“The church was the last point taken. The column which moved against it, consisting of the battalion of Jimenes and other troops, was at first repulsed, and took refuge among some old houses outside of the barrier, near its southwest angle, till it was rallied and led on by General Amador. It was soon joined by the rest of the force, and the church was carried by a *coup de main*. Its inmates, like the rest, fought till the last, and continued to fire from the upper platforms after the enemy occupied the floor of the building. A Mexican officer told of seeing a man shot in the crown of the head in this melee. During the closing struggle, Lieutenant Dickinson, with his child in his arms, or tied to his back, as some accounts say, leaped from an upper window, and both were killed in the act. Of those he left behind him, the bayonet soon gleaned what the bullet missed; and in the upper part of the church the last defender must have fallen. The morning breeze which received his parting breath probably still fanned his flag above that fabric, ere it was pulled down by the victor. It is a fact not often remembered, that Travis and his men died under the Mexican Federal flag of 1824, instead of the ‘Lone Star,’ although the independence of Texas, unknown to them, had been declared four days before. They died for a Republic whose existence they never knew.

“*The Alamo had fallen.*

“The action, according to Santa Anna’s report, lasted 30 minutes. It was certainly short, and possibly no longer space passed between the moment when the enemy fronted the breach and that when resistance died out. Some of the incidents which have to be related separately, no doubt occurred simultaneously, and occupied very little time.

“The account of the assault which Yoakum and others have adopted as authentic, is evidently one which popular tradition has based on conjecture.

“A negro boy, belonging to Travis, the wife of Lieutenant Dickinson, Mrs. Alsbury, a native of San Antonio, and another Mexican woman, and two children, were the only inmates of the fortress whose lives were spared. The children were those of the two females whose names are given. Lieutenant Dickinson commanded a gun in the east upper window of the church. His family was probably in one of the two small upper rooms of the front. This will account for his being able to take one of his children to the rear platform while the building was being stormed. A small irrigating canal runs below the window referred to; and his aim, in the desperate attempt at flight, probably was to break his fall by leaping into the water; but the shower of bullets which greeted him rendered the precaution as needless as it was hopeless.

“At the time the outer barriers were carried, a few men leaped from them and

attempted to escape, but were all cut down by the cavalry. Half an hour or more after the action was over, a few men were found concealed in one of the rooms under some mattresses—General Houston, in a letter of the 11th, says as many as seven; but I have generally heard them spoken of as only three or four. The officer to whom they were first reported entreated Santa Anna to spare their lives; but he was sternly rebuked and the men ordered to be shot, which was done. Owing to the hurried and confused manner in which the mandate was obeyed, a Mexican soldier was accidentally killed with them.

“Castrillon was the soul of the assault. Santa Anna remained at the south battery with the music of the whole army and a part of his staff, till he supposed the place was nearly mastered, when he moved up with that escort toward the Alamo; but returned again on being greeted by a few rifle balls from the upper windows of the church. He, however, entered the area toward the close of the scene, and directed some of the last details of the butchery.

“The five infantry corps that formed the attacking force, according to the data already referred to, amounted to about 2500 men. The number of Mexican wounded, according to various accounts, largely exceeded that of the killed; and the estimates made of both by intelligent men who were in the action, and whose candor I think could be relied on, rated their loss at from 150 to 200 killed, and from 300 to 400 wounded. The real loss of the assailants in killed and wounded probably did not differ much from 500 men. General Bradburn was of opinion that 300 men in the action were lost to the service, counting with the killed those who died of wounds or were permanently disabled. This agrees with the other most reliable estimates. Now, if 500 men or more were bullet-stricken in half an hour, by 180 or less, it was a rapidity of bloodshed almost unexampled, and needs no exaggeration.

“Of the foregoing details, which do not refer to documentary authority, I obtained many from General Bradburn, who arrived at San Antonio a few days after the action, and gathered them from officers who were in it. A few I had through a friend from General Amador. Others again I received from three intelligent sergeants, who were men of fair education, and I think truthful. One of them, Sergeant Becero, of the battalion of Matamoras, who was captured at San Jacinto, was for several years my servant in Texas. From men of their class I could generally get more candid statements, as to loss and other matters, than from commissioned officers. I have also gathered some minor particulars from local tradition preserved among the residents of this town. When most of the details thus learned were acquired, I had not seen the locality; and hence I had to locate some of the occurrences by inference; which I have done carefully and I think correctly.

“The stranger will naturally inquire, ‘Where lie the heroes of the Alamo?’ and Texas can only reply by a silent blush. A few hours after the action, the bodies of the slaughtered garrison were gathered up by the victors, laid in three piles, mingled with fuel, and burned. On the 25th of February, near a year after, their bones and ashes were collected, placed in a coffin, and interred with due solemnity, and with military honors, by Colonel Seguin and his command. The place of burial was in what was then a peach orchard outside the town, a few hundred yards from the Alamo. It is now a large enclosed lot in the midst of the Alamo suburb.”

THE WESTERN STATES.

WEST VIRGINIA.

Area,	23,000 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	376,688
Population in 1870,	442,014

THE State of West Virginia (excluding the narrow strip in the northwest, called the "Pan-handle") lies between $37^{\circ} 6'$ and $39^{\circ} 44'$ N. latitude, and between $77^{\circ} 40'$ and $82^{\circ} 35'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Pennsylvania and Maryland, on the southeast by Virginia, on the southwest by Virginia and Kentucky, and on the northwest by Ohio. It is very irregular in shape.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The surface is generally hilly. The northeast part of the State is crossed by the Alleghany Mountains, west of which are the Greenbrier, Cheat Mountains, and other eminences, supposed to be a prolongation of the Cumberland Mountains. The valley between these ranges and the Alleghanies is elevated to a level of from 1200 to 2000 feet above the level of the sea.

The scenery of the State is grand and beautiful. The celebrated pass at Harper's Ferry lies in this State, and is but the beginning of a series of mountain views, unsurpassed in grandeur by any in the world.

"The scenery at Harper's Ferry is, perhaps, the most singularly picturesque in America. To attain the view here given, it was necessary to climb the Blue Ridge by a narrow winding path immediately above the bank of the Potomac. The view from this lofty summit amply repays the fatigue incurred by its ascent. The junction of the two rivers is immediately beneath the spectator's feet; and his delighted



HARPER'S FERRY.

eye, resting first upon the beautiful and thriving village of Harper's Ferry, wanders over the wide and woody plains, extending to the Alleghany Mountains. President Jefferson, who has given the name to a beautiful rock immediately above the village, has left a powerful description of the scenery of Harper's Ferry. He says: 'The passage of the Potomac through the Blue Ridge, is, perhaps, one of the most stupendous scenes in nature. You stand on a very high point of land; on your right comes up the Shenandoah, having ranged along the foot of a mountain a hundred miles to seek a vent. On your left approaches the Potomac, in quest of a passage also; in the moment of their junction, they rush together against the mountain, rend it asunder, and pass off to the sea. The first glance of this scene hurries our senses into the opinion that this earth has been created in time; that the mountains were formed first; that the rivers began to flow afterwards; that in this place particularly, they have been dammed up by the Blue Ridge of mountains, and have formed an ocean which filled the whole valley; that, continuing to rise, they have at length broken over at this spot, and have torn the mountain down from its summit to its base. The piles of rock on

each hand, particularly on the Shenandoah—the evident marks of their disrapture and avulsion from their beds by the most powerful agents of nature, corroborate the impression. But the distant finishing which nature has given to the picture, is of a very different character; it is a true contrast to the foreground; it is as placid and delightful as that is wild and tremendous; for the mountain being cloven asunder, she presents to your eye, through the clefts a small catch of smooth blue horizon, at an infinite distance in the plain country, inviting you, as it were, from the riot and tumult warring around, to pass through the breach and participate of the calm below. Here the eye ultimately composes itself; and that way, too, the road happens actually to lead. You cross the Potomac above the junction, pass along its side through the base of the mountain for three miles, its terrible precipices hanging in fragments over you, and within about twenty miles reach Fredericktown, and the fine country round that. This scene is worth a voyage across the Atlantic; yet here, as in the neighborhood of the Natural Bridge, are people who have passed their lives within half a dozen miles, and have never been to survey these monuments of a war between rivers and mountains, which must have shaken the earth itself to its centre.' There are many points of view from which the scenery appears romantic and beautiful. Among these, that seen from Jefferson's Rock, which is on a hill overhanging the town, is very fine. The top of this rock is flat, and nearly twelve feet square; its base, which does not exceed five feet in width, rests upon the top of a larger rock; and its height is about five feet. The whole mass is so nicely balanced, that the application of a small force will cause it to vibrate considerably. On this rock once reposed another rock, on which Mr. Jefferson, during a visit to this place, inscribed his name. In the extraordinary political excitement of 1798–9, between the federal and the democratic parties, a Captain Henry, who was stationed here with some United States troops, at the head of a band of his men hurled off the apex of this rock. At Harper's Ferry, on the Maryland side, there is said to be a wonderful likeness of Washington in the stupendous rocks which overhang the Potomac. The nose, lips, and chin are admirably formed, and bear the semblance of studied art. The forehead is obscure; yet there is sufficient to give the mind a just idea of the noble form and dignified carriage, with the mildness of feature, which the original possessed so pre-eminently as to inspire all men with a profound reverence towards this august personage."

The Ohio River, already described, washes the entire northwestern shore of the State. The cities of Wheeling and Parkersburg lie on its banks. Its scenery is beautiful, but tame. It receives the waters of the principal rivers of the State. These are the Little and Great Kanawha, the Guyandotte, and Big Sandy, which last separates the State from Kentucky. The Monongahela, one of the branches of the Ohio, rises in the centre of this State, and flows north into Pennsylvania. The Potomac also rises in the northeastern part and separates West Virginia from Maryland. *The Great Kanawha* is the principal river, lying for the greater part within the State. It rises in Ashe county, North Carolina, and flows northwest through Virginia and West Virginia into the Ohio, at Point Pleasant. Before entering West Virginia it is known as New River. It breaks through the Alleghany and Blue Ridge ranges, and in Fayette county, in this State, is joined by its principal tributary, the Gauley. Two miles below the mouth of the Gauley, the Kanawha, now 500 yards wide, falls over a ledge of rocks 25 feet high. These falls are very picturesque, and are at the head of the navigation of the stream. The scenery, especially along the New River, is very beautiful. The Kanawha is 400 miles long, and navigable for 100 miles. The Monongahela is navigable at high water from Pittsburg, Pa., to Fairmont in this State.

CLIMATE.

The climate in West Virginia is invigorating and delightful. The summers are cool and pleasant, yet hot enough for the crops, and the winters though severe are steady and not unpleasant. In healthfulness, the State will compare favorably with any part of the Union.

MINERALS.

A recent report of the Bureau of Agriculture thus describes the minerals of the State:

"The minerals of West Virginia are too well known for particular comment. Nearly all the counties in the State contain coal, iron, and other minerals; coal, in veins suitable for working, is found in greatest abundance along the banks of the Upper Ohio, in the hills along the course of the Monongahela and its branches, in the central counties of the State, in the Piedmont region east of the summit, in the Kanawha valley, and in all the counties south of that river. The coal

lands of Guyandotte, being bituminous, cannel, and splint varieties, cover nine-tenths of the Guyandotte valley, in horizontal strata in the hills, from three to eleven feet thick, aggregating in some hills, twenty-five or thirty feet. Coal mining in Kanawha is represented as paying well. The inducements for employing capital under practical supervision is claimed to be very flattering, while complaint is made of the visionary character of recent coal and oil operations. Of Brooke, our correspondent says:—‘The most valuable mineral, however, is bituminous coal, accessible by level adits over the greater part of the county. The stratum is four to five feet thick. In the hills, fronting on the Ohio River, it is about 200 feet above the river level, and the coal is let down by railways to boats for shipment. Off from the river it is mined merely for home consumption. As soon as railways are made up the valleys, an immense supply can be obtained. About 300 feet beneath the river level, there is another stratum, some six or seven feet in thickness, of superior coal, which has been mined by shafts or galleries at Steubenville, and at Rust Run, on the opposite side of the river. A company was formed a short time ago to mine this coal at Wellsburg, our county seat, but they have as yet failed to commence. This coal is almost wholly free from sulphur, and on that account admirably fitted for working iron.’ Iron ore, of various descriptions, and of superior quality, abounds in many of the counties. It is worked in a few localities on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, but development of the iron of the State can scarcely be said to have commenced. Other minerals are reported in every section of the State. Some of the best timber of the country is to be found here, of all the different kinds of oaks, black walnut, hickory, poplar, cherry, etc. A considerable trade in timber is already in progress in the river counties, and boat-building is engaged in to some extent. The soil is generally productive, yielding well all farm products.”

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The soil of the State is excellent as a general rule. The river bottoms and the mountain valleys are the best lands, but the hill-sides are fertile, also, and admirably suited for grazing.

In 1869, there were about 3,000,000 acres of improved land in the State, and about 7,000,000 acres of unimproved land. The cash value of farms was about \$120,000,000. Farming implements and machinery amounted to about \$2,500,000 in value. The value of domestic animals was \$17,088,568.

The principal products are :

Bushels of wheat,	2,500,000
“ rye,	300,000
“ oats,	2,500,000
“ buckwheat,	90,000
“ Indian corn,	8,250,000
“ barley,	56,000
“ Irish potatoes,	1,125,000
Pounds of tobacco,	2,000,000
Tons of hay,	225,000

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.

Manufactures are growing in importance in the State. Wheeling, the principal city, is largely engaged in the manufacture of iron and glass. In 1870 there were 2444 manufacturing establishments in the State, employing 11,672 hands, and a capital of \$11,084,520; using raw materials to the value of \$14,503,701; and yielding an annual product of \$24,102,201. The iron manufactures were valued at \$9,833,892.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In 1872, there were 485 miles of completed railroads in West Virginia, constructed at a cost of about \$33,000,000. The great Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, which connects Wheeling with Baltimore, and its branch, the Northwestern Virginia Railroad, pass through the northern and northwestern counties of the State. The Hempfield Railroad will connect Wheeling with Washington, Pennsylvania, and is to be extended to the Pennsylvania Central Railroad at Greensburg in that State. The Chesapeake and Ohio Railway is completed from Covington to the Ohio River, and connects its eastern terminus with the Central Railroad of Virginia.

EDUCATION.

Bethany College, in Brooke county, is the principal institution of the State. It is under the care of the Campbellite Church.

The State Superintendent of Free Schools has the general supervision of the system of public instruction in the State. He makes an annual report of the condition of the schools to the Legislature. Each county is in charge of a County Superintendent, elected for two years. He is required by law to visit the schools and examine the teachers at least once in six months. He reports annually to the State Superin-

tendent. The immediate control of the schools is vested in a Board of Education in each township. Each board consists of three Commissioners, elected for three years, and the clerk of the township. They report to the County Superintendent. Three normal schools have been established—one at Guyandotte, Cabell county; one at West Liberty, Ohio county; and one at Fairmont, Marion county. The school at West Liberty has been opened, and has an attendance of 90 pupils.

An Agricultural College, established by the State at Morgantown, in Monongalia county, was opened in June, 1867. It is provided with excellent buildings and a farm of 25 acres.

In 1870, there were 2113 school-houses in the State. The annual attendance was 87,330. The number of children of school age was 162,430. The permanent school fund, of which only the interest can be used, amounts to \$254,860. The total sum received for school purposes, during the year, amounted to \$562,761. The value of school property in 48 counties was \$1,057,473.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The State Penitentiary is located at Moundsville, and is in course of construction, but sufficiently advanced to accommodate the convicts, who in November, 1870, numbered 114.

The Hospital for the Insane is at Weston, in Lewis county. It is not yet finished, but is sufficiently advanced to accommodate its patients, who in 1870 numbered 207. The buildings, when completed, will be ample and very handsome. They were begun by the old State of Virginia before the war.

The Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Asylum of West Virginia is situated at Romney, and was opened in 1870. It is too small to accommodate the patients.

FINANCES.

The State has no debt of its own, and it is not yet decided whether it will assume any share of the debt of the old State of Virginia. The receipts of the Treasury for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1874, were \$695,951; and the expenditures \$657,183. On the 1st of October, 1874, there was a cash balance in the Treasury of \$38,768, exclusive of balance of school fund, etc.

There were, in 1868, in this State, 5 State banks, with a capital of \$570,200, and 15 National banks, with a capital of \$2,216,400.

GOVERNMENT.

The present Constitution of the State was ratified by the people in May, 1862. Every white male citizen, 21 years old, who has resided in the State one year, and in the county thirty days, is entitled to vote at the elections. Paupers, lunatics, and convicts, are not allowed to vote.

The Government is vested in a Governor, Secretary of State, Auditor, Treasurer, Attorney-General, and a Legislature consisting of a Senate (of 22 members, elected for two years) and a House of Delegates (of 51 members, elected for one year), all elected by the people. The State officers are chosen for two years. The Legislature meets every year on the third Tuesday in January, and sits for 45 days only, unless two-thirds of both houses agree to prolong the session.

The Courts of the State are, the Court of Appeals, Circuit Courts, and County Courts. The Supreme Court of Appeals consists of 3 judges, elected by the people for 12 years, one judge retiring every 4 years.

The seat of Government is located at Charleston, in Kanawha county. The State is divided into 53 counties.

HISTORY.

This State formed a part of Virginia until the outbreak of the late war. Being unwilling to be forced out of the Union by the action of the eastern counties, the people of the western district met at Wheeling in convention, on the 11th of June, 1861, and organized a State Government. Delegates from 40 counties were present. On the 26th of November, 1861, another Convention met at Wheeling and adopted a State Constitution for the new State of West Virginia. This was ratified by the people on the 3d of May, 1862, but Congress insisted on the adoption of certain amendments to the Constitution. These changes were made by the Convention, the amendments sustained by a vote of the people, and the new State was admitted into the Union on the 20th of June, 1863.

During the war the State was repeatedly invaded by the Confederates, and those regions bordering on the old State of Virginia put to considerable loss. The Kanawha Valley was the scene of several severe battles, but towards the close of the war the State was almost exempt from hostilities.

The people were much divided in sentiment, the Union element preponderating, however. A large number of men enlisted in the Confederate army, and the State furnished 31,884 troops to the United States army.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

The principal cities and towns are, Wheeling, Parkersburg, Martinsburg, Charleston, Lewisburg, Clarksburg, Fairmont, Grafton, and Wellsburg.

CHARLESTON,

The capital of the State, is situated in Kanawha county, on the north bank of the Kanawha River, 60 miles from its mouth, and at its confluence with the Elk River, and about 150 miles S.S.W. of Wheeling. The river here is about 300 yards wide, and is navigable for small steamers during the entire year. These furnish the only means of communication with Wheeling and Parkersburg, the principal cities of the State. Charleston will soon be connected with Eastern Virginia by the Chesapeake and Ohio Railway, now in course of construction.

Charleston is a pretty country town, containing the county buildings, a newspaper office, 3 or 4 churches, and several schools. Its only importance is due to its being the capital of the State. Being difficult of access, it is believed that the seat of Government will soon be removed to some more convenient town. In 1870 the population was 3162.

Just above Charleston are the famous Kanawha Salt Works, which extend on both sides of the river for about 15 miles. Previous to the civil war they gave employment to about 3000 persons, and produced large quantities of salt annually. During the civil war they were greatly injured. The entire Kanawha region is rich in coal, and abounds in fine water-power. Its proximity to the iron regions of the two Virginias gives it peculiar advantages for manufacturing, which will no doubt be improved in the course of a few years.

WHEELING,

The commercial and political metropolis of West Virginia, and the first capital of the State, is situated in Ohio county, on the east bank of the Ohio River, and on both sides of Wheeling Creek, at the mouth of the latter stream, 92 miles below Pittsburg, 365 miles above Cin-



WHEELING.

cinnati, and 420 miles west of Washington by the Baltimore and Ohio Railway. Latitude $40^{\circ} 7' N.$; longitude $80^{\circ} 42' W.$

The city is built along a narrow alluvial tract extending from the river to a range of hills less than a mile from the water, and running parallel with it. It is about 2 miles in length, with an average breadth of half a mile. It is regularly laid out, with moderately wide streets crossing each other at right angles, and though it contains a number of handsome buildings, public and private, is but indifferently built as a whole. The streets are tolerably well paved, and some of them are well shaded with handsome trees. The houses are mostly of brick, and nearly the whole of those recently erected are of this material.

The principal public buildings are, the *United States Custom House* (in which is located the Post Office), a handsome granite edifice, and the *Court House*. The city contains 24 churches, some of which would do credit to any city; an efficient hospital; 7 public schools, and several excellent private schools, its female seminaries being among the best in the country; a free library of 35,000 volumes; 2 hotels, and 4 newspaper offices. Its principal points are connected by a street railway, which is also extended across the Ohio to the town of Bridgeport, in the

State of Ohio ; it is lighted with gas, is supplied with pure water from the Ohio River, and is provided with a steam fire department, and an efficient police force. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870 the population was 19,282.

Wheeling lies in the midst of one of the loveliest portions of the Ohio Valley, and is destined to become a place of very great importance. It is connected with Baltimore and the East by the Baltimore and Ohio Railway. A railway on the opposite side of the river connects it with Pittsburg and Cleveland, and another on the same side with Columbus, Cincinnati and all parts of the West. The Ohio is navigable for steamers during the greater part of the year, and affords water communication with all parts of the Mississippi Valley. The city is engaged in a heavy river trade, a number of steamboats being owned in Wheeling.

The prosperity of the city is due almost entirely to its manufactures. The mills by which it is surrounded are filled with coal, which lies but a few feet below the surface. The large mills mine their own coal at a moderate cost, many of the "coal banks," as they are called, lying within the city limits. Dr. Reeves, of Wheeling, writing in 1870, thus speaks of the manufactures of the city :

"In the manufacture of iron and nails, within the limits of the city, 2295 persons are employed ; of these the principal operatives are boilers and their helpers, 620 ; blacksmiths, 80 ; nailers, 127 ; nail-feeders, 385. Boilers work at the furnaces by turns of ten hours, both day and night, and prepare the metal for the rolls, where it is made into bars and nail sheeting. This class of laborers is generally composed of Germans and Irish—the most of them foreign born, and, as a rule, are a hardy set of men.

"The nail mills of Wheeling—the Riverside Iron Works, Belmont, La Belle, and Wheeling Iron and Nail Works, including the two mills at Benwood and Bellaire, which are four miles distant from Wheeling, cut 17,350 kegs of nails per week, or about 902,200 kegs annually, at an average value of \$4,059,900. Besides these, and other rolling mills for the manufacture of railroad bar rod, hammer iron, sheet iron, bridge iron, bolts, etc., there are two spike mills which turn out annually, for railroad and boat building purposes, from 50,000 to 60,000 kegs. The toughness of Wheeling nails, and therefore their superiority to nails made at other mills, is generally conceded. The Whitaker Mills, situated on the bank of Wheeling Creek, engage principally in the manufacture of railroad iron, spikes.

sheet iron, etc., and are capable of rolling and finishing 60 tons of railroad bars per day. Fifty miles of the rails of the great Pacific road were made at these mills. The Norway Manufacturing Company's mills, situated in South Wheeling, are supplied with machinery of the most improved invention, and are capable of doing all kinds of wrought iron bridge work. A part of the grand railway superstructure soon to span the Missouri at St. Charles, near St. Louis, is now going through these mills, which not only proves their capacity, but as well their competitive ability. The hinge and tack factories are extensive establishments, and because of the superior manufacture of their stocks, they are rapidly extending their trade in all directions. The founderies and machine shops give employment to 475 persons, who are remarkable for their general good health, notwithstanding their frequent excesses in eating and drinking. There are eight founderies in the city. Three or four of these establishments are principally engaged in duplicating the patterns of machinery employed in the different iron and nail mills, and they are also as well prepared to make original patterns and single castings of any shape and for any purpose, weighing from one pound to fifteen tons. Recently a new item of business—the making of iron fronts of the most beautiful and substantial patterns, for business houses—has come into existence.

“The stove market is entirely supplied from home founderies, which turn out annually thousands of different patterns, both for cooking and heating purposes. In this particular line of trade, business is constantly on the increase, for two reasons, mainly: the truly excellent patterns made, and the exceedingly low price at which they are sold. Besides, it has been ascertained that Wheeling stoves withstand greater and longer heat without burning than many patterns of Eastern and Northern manufacture.

“There are eight machine shops in the city. Of these the Baltimore and Ohio are the most extensive, and command the labor of from 60 to 120 men, both day and night. In each of the other shops, however, equally skilled machinists are busily employed the year round making steam-engines, boilers, shafting, mill work, steamboat irons, etc., etc. In a word, anything in the way of Machinery can be made at the Wheeling shops as well and at as low price as it can be furnished from the competing shops of Pittsburg and Cincinnati.

“THE MANUFACTURE OF GLASS.—In this department there are six extensive establishments—one of which is said to be the largest

of the kind in the United States—which employ 860 persons of both sexes, men and women, boys and girls. Many articles of Wheeling glass manufacture find ready sale in the markets of other cities—from Maine to California; and it is, indeed, remarkable that New England sand can be shipped to Wheeling, where it is made into the finest flint glass wares, and then these sent to Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York and Boston, for sale at even smaller prices than their own manufacturers can produce like articles. Some idea may be had of the extent of the business done, when it is mentioned that to one house alone, the annual cost of packages, boxes, barrels, etc., for shipment of wares, is \$15,000; and that during the past three months, over 16,000 second-hand barrels have been used at a cost of \$5000. The superior quality of Wheeling window glass is generally acknowledged. Several of the finer grades, usually cut into large panes, closely resemble the best specimens of imported *plate glass*.

“Besides the manufacture of iron, nails and glass, there are several establishments which are of very great importance, both on account of the amount of capital invested, and the number of skilled laborers they employ. First in importance among these, perhaps, are the two extensive ship-yards—one in North Wheeling, the other in South Wheeling. Many first-class boats are built at these yards, and furnished with the most improved machinery from Wheeling shops. There are also several extensive wagon and carriage manufactories in the city. In these establishments a very large capital is invested. Their trade is principally with the South, and the supply of their manufactures scarcely equals the demand. The woollen factory is a busy institution, and supplies the home and other markets with many excellent fabrics.”

There are about 34 establishments engaged in the manufacture of the articles referred to. Besides these, flour, white lead, and silk are also produced here.

The Ohio is crossed at Wheeling by a beautiful wire suspension bridge, which is one of the largest in the world, with a span of 1010 feet. The height of the towers is 153 feet above low-water mark, and 60 feet above the abutments. The bridge is supported by four wire cables, each 1380 feet in length, and 8 inches in diameter. The cost of the bridge was \$210,000 in gold. It extends from Wheeling proper to Zanes' Island, now the 7th ward of the city of Wheeling. On the western side of the island, a covered wooden bridge connects it with the town of Bridgeport in Ohio.

Wheeling was originally settled in 1769 by Colonel Ebenezer Zane, his brothers Silas and Jonathan, and a number of others. They chose the site of the present city for their new home, and the next spring brought out their families. The name of the city is derived from an Indian word—Weeling—signifying the *place of a head*. Some years before the settlement a party of whites descending the Ohio, stopped at the mouth of the creek. They were murdered by the Indians, who cut off the head of one of the victims, and placed it on a pole with the face to the river, and called the spot *Weeling*. Soon after the settlement a fort was built near the mouth of the creek. In September, 1777, this Fort (Henry) was besieged by a force of about 500 Indian warriors, led by the notorious renegade Simon Girty. The garrison, only 42 strong, repulsed the attack, until the arrival of a reinforcement of about 50 men, when the savages raised the siege and retreated. After the close of the Revolution the city grew slowly. The introduction of steam navigation on the Ohio, gave it an impetus, and it soon entered upon its manufacturing career, which can be limited only by the amount of capital available to its citizens. After the secession of Virginia, and the separation from the old State, it was made the capital of West Virginia, and continued to be the seat of Government until the removal of the capital to Charleston, in 1870.

PARKERSBURG,

The second city of the State, is situated in Wood county, on the east bank of the Ohio River, at the mouth of the Little Kanawha, 100 miles below Wheeling, and about 400 miles by railway west of Washington. It is well laid out, and is neatly built. It contains a Court House, about 5 churches, several good schools, 3 newspaper offices, and several steam mills. It is the western terminus of the Northwestern Virginia railway, a branch of the Baltimore and Ohio railway. The Ohio River is here crossed by a fine railway bridge, by means of which close connections are made with the railways leading to Cincinnati, etc. The city is also actively engaged in the river trade. The valley of the Little Kanawha abounds in oil wells, many of which are very profitable. Just below Parkersburg is the long celebrated Blannerhasset's Island. Good turnpike roads extend from Parkersburg to Winchester and Staunton, in Eastern Virginia. In 1870, the population of Parkersburg was 5546.

MISCELLANY.

BORDER LIFE.

Dodridge, in his "Notes on Western Virginia," gives the following account of the life led by the settlers of that region :

The settlements on this side of the mountains commenced along the Monongahela, and between that river and the Laurel ridge, in the year 1772. In the succeeding year they reached the Ohio River. The greater number of the first settlers came from the upper parts of the then colonies of Maryland and Virginia. Braddock's trail, as it was called, was the route by which the greater number of them crossed the mountains. A less number of them came by the way of Bedford and Fort Ligonier. They effected their removals on horses furnished with pack-saddles. This was the more easily done, as but few of these early adventurers into the wilderness were encumbered with much baggage.

Land was the object which invited the greater number of these people to cross the mountain, for, as the saying then was, "It was to be had here for taking up;" that is, building a cabin and raising a crop of grain, however small, of any kind, entitled the occupant to 400 acres of land, and a pre-emption right to 1000 acres more adjoining, to be secured by a land-office warrant. This right was to take effect if there happened to be so much vacant land, or any part thereof, adjoining the tract secured by the settlement right.

At an early period the Government of Virginia appointed three commissioners to give certificates of settlement rights. These certificates, together with the surveyor's plat, were sent to the land-office of the State, where they lay six months, to await any caveat which might be offered. If none was offered, the patent then issued.

There was, at an early period of our settlements, an inferior kind of land title, denominated a "tomahawk right," which was made by deadening a few trees near the head of a spring, and marking the bark of some one or more of them with the initials of the name of the person who made the improvement. I remember having seen a number of those "tomahawk rights" when a boy. For a long time many of them bore the names of those who made them. I have no knowledge of the efficacy of the tomahawk improvement, or whether it conferred any right whatever, unless followed by an actual settlement. These rights, however, were often bought and sold. Those who wished to make settlements on their favorite tracts of land, bought up the tomahawk improvements, rather than enter into quarrels with those who had made them. Other improvers of the land, with a view to actual settlement, and who happened to be stout veteran fellows, took a very different course from that of purchasing the "tomahawk rights." When annoyed by the claimants under those rights, they deliberately cut a few good hickories, and gave them what was called in those days a "laced jacket," that is, a sound whipping.

Some of the early settlers took the precaution to come over the mountains in the spring, leaving their families behind to raise a crop of corn, and then return and bring them out in the fall. This I should think was the better way. Others, especially those whose families were small, brought them with them in the spring. My father took the latter course. His family was but small, and he

brought them all with him. The Indian meal which he brought over the mountain was expended six weeks too soon, so that for that length of time we had to live without bread. The lean venison and the breast of wild turkeys we were taught to call bread. The flesh of the bear was denominated meat. This artifice did not succeed very well. After living in this way for some time, we became sickly, the stomach seemed to be always empty and tormented with a sense of hunger. I remember how narrowly the children watched the growth of the potato tops, pumpkin and squash vines, hoping from day to day to get something to answer in the place of bread. How delicious was the taste of the young potatoes when we got them! What a jubilee, when we were permitted to pull the young corn for roasting ears. Still more so, when it had acquired sufficient hardness to be made into jonny-cakes by the aid of a tin grater. We then became healthy, vigorous, and contented with our situation, poor as it was.

My father, with a small number of his neighbors, made their settlements in the spring of 1773. Though they were in a poor and destitute situation, they nevertheless lived in peace; but their tranquillity was not of long continuance. Those most atrocious murders of the peaceable, inoffensive Indians, at Captina and Yellow Creek, brought on the war of Lord Dunmore, in the spring of the year 1774. Our little settlement then broke up. The women and children were removed to Morris's Fort, in Sandy Creek glade, some distance to the east of Uniontown. The fort consisted of an assemblage of small hovels, situated on the margin of a large and noxious marsh, the effluvia of which gave the most of the women and children the fever and ague. The men were compelled by necessity to return home, and risk the tomahawk and scalping-knife of the Indians, in raising corn to keep their families from starvation the succeeding winter. Those sufferings, dangers, and losses, were the tribute we had to pay to that thirst for blood which actuated those veteran murderers who brought the war upon us. The memory of the sufferers in this war, as well as that of their descendants, still looks back upon them with regret and abhorrence, and the page of history will consign their names to posterity with the full weight of infamy they deserve.

My father, like many others, believed that, having secured his legal allotment, the rest of the country belonged of right to those who chose to settle in it. There was a piece of vacant land adjoining his tract, amounting to about 200 acres. To this tract of land he had the pre-emption right, and accordingly secured it by warrant; but his conscience would not permit him to retain it in his family; he therefore gave it to an apprentice lad whom he had raised in his house. This lad sold it to an uncle of mine for a cow and a calf, and a wool hat.

Owing to the equal distribution of real property directed by our land laws, and the sterling integrity of our forefathers in their observance of them, we have no districts of "sold land," as it is called, that is, large tracts of land in the hands of individuals, or companies, who neither sell nor improve them, as is the case in Lower Canada and the northwestern part of Pennsylvania. These unsettled tracts make huge blanks in the population of the country where they exist.

The division-lines between those whose lands adjoined were generally made in an amicable manner, before any survey of them was made, by the parties concerned. In doing this, they were guided mainly by the tops of ridges and water-courses, but particularly the former. Hence the greater number of farms in the western parts of Pennsylvania and Virginia bear a striking resemblance to an amphitheatre. The buildings occupy a low situation, and the tops of the

surrounding hills are the boundaries of the tract to which the family mansion belongs.

Our forefathers were fond of farms of this description, because, as they said, they were attended with this convenience, "that everything comes to the house down hill."

Most of the early settlers considered their land as of little value, from an apprehension that after a few years' cultivation it would lose its fertility, at least for a long time. I have often heard them say that such a field would bear so many crops, and another so many more or less than that. The ground of this belief concerning the short-lived fertility of the land in this country, was the poverty of a great proportion of the land in the lower parts of Maryland and Virginia, which, after producing a few crops, became unfit for use, and was thrown out into commons.

My reader will naturally ask where were their mills for grinding grain? Where their tanneries for making leather? Where their smith-shops for making and repairing their farming utensils? Who were their carpenters, tailors, cabinet workmen, shoemakers, and weavers? The answer is, those manufacturers did not exist, nor had they any tradesmen who were professedly such. Every family was under the necessity of doing everything for themselves as well as they could. The hommony-block and hand-mills were in use in most of our houses. The first was made of a large block of wood about 3 feet long, with an excavation burned in one end, wide at the top and narrow at the bottom, so that the action of the pestle on the bottom threw the corn up to the sides towards the top of it, from whence it continually fell down into the centre. In consequence of this movement, the whole mass of the grain was pretty equally subjected to the strokes of the pestle. In the fall of the year, while the Indian corn was soft, the block and pestle did very well for making meal for jonny-cake and mush, but were rather slow when the corn became hard.

The sweep was sometimes used to lessen the toil of pounding grain into meal. This was a pole of some springy elastic wood, 30 feet long or more; the butt end was placed under the side of a house, or a large stump. This pole was supported by two forks, placed about one-third of its length from the butt end, so as to elevate the small end about 15 feet from the ground; to this was attached, by a large mortise, a piece of a sapling, about 5 or 6 inches in diameter, and 8 or 10 feet long. The lower end of this was shaped so as to answer for a pestle. A pin of wood was put through it at a proper height, so that two persons could work at the sweep at once. This simple machine very much lessened the labor, and expedited the work. I remember that, when a boy, I put up an excellent sweep at my father's. It was made of a sugar-tree sapling. It was kept going almost constantly, from morning till night, by our neighbors for several weeks. In the Greenbrier country, where they had a number of saltpetre caves, the first settlers made plenty of excellent gunpowder by means of those sweeps and mortars.

A machine still more simple than the mortar and pestle was used for making meal, while the corn was too soft to be beaten. It was called a grater. This was a half-circular piece of tin, perforated with a punch from the concave side, and nailed by its edges to a block of wood. The ears of corn were rubbed on the rough edges of the holes, while the meal fell through them on the board or block to which the grater was nailed, which, being in a slanting direction, discharged the meal into a cloth or bowl placed for its reception. This, to be sure, was a slow way of making meal, but necessity has no law.

The hand-mill was better than the mortar and grater. It was made of two circular stones, the lowest of which was called the bed-stone, the upper one the runner. These were placed in a hoop, with a spout for discharging the meal. A staff was let into a hole in the upper surface of the runner, near the outer edge, and its upper end through a hole in a board fastened to a joist above, so that two persons could be employed in turning the mill at the same time. The grain was put into the opening in the runner by hand. These mills are still in use in Palestine, the ancient country of the Jews. To a mill of this sort our Saviour alluded, when, with reference to the destruction of Jerusalem, he said: "Two women shall be grinding at a mill, the one shall be taken and the other left." This mill is much preferable to that used at present in Upper Egypt for making the dhoura bread. It is a smooth stone, placed on an inclined plane, upon which the grain is spread, which is made into meal by rubbing another stone up and down upon it.

Our first water-mills were of that description denominated tub-mills. It consists of a perpendicular shaft, to the lower end of which a horizontal wheel of about 4 or 5 feet in diameter is attached; the upper end passes through the bed-stone, and carries the runner after the manner of a trundlehead. These mills were built with very little expense, and many of them answered the purpose very well. Instead of bolting cloths, sifters were in general use. They were made of deerskins, in a state of parchment, stretched over a hoop, and perforated with a hot wire.

Our clothing was all of domestic manufacture. We had no other resource for clothing, and this indeed was a poor one. The crops of flax often failed, and the sheep were destroyed by the wolves. Linsey, which is made of flax and wool—the former the chain, the latter the filling—was the warmest and most substantial cloth we could make. Almost every house contained a loom, and almost every woman was a weaver.

Every family tanned their own leather. The tan-vat was a large trough sunk to the upper edge in the ground. A quantity of bark was easily obtained every spring in clearing and fencing land. This, after drying, was brought in, and in wet days was shaved and pounded on a block of wood, with an axe or mallet. Ashes were used in place of lime, for taking off the hair. Bears' oil, hogs' lard, and tallow, answered the place of fish oil. The leather, to be sure, was coarse; but it was substantially good. The operation of currying was performed by a drawing-knife, with its edge turned, after the manner of a currying-knife. The blacking for the leather was made of soot and hogs' lard.

Almost every family contained its own tailors and shoemakers. Those who could not make shoes, could make shoepacks. These, like moccasins, were made of a single piece of leather, with the exception of a tongue-piece on the top of the foot. This was about 2 inches broad, and circular at the lower end. To this the main piece of leather was sewed with a gathering stitch. The seam behind was like that of a moccasin. To the shoepack a sole was sometimes added. The women did the tailor work. They could all cut out and make hunting-shirts, leggins, and drawers.

The state of society which existed in our country at an early period of its settlement, was well calculated to call into action every native mechanical genius. This happened in this country. There was in almost every neighborhood some one, whose natural ingenuity enabled him to do many things for himself and his neighbors, far above what could have been reasonably expected. With the few

tools which they brought with them into the country, they certainly performed wonders. Their plows, harrows with wooden teeth, and sleds, were in many instances well made. Their cooper-ware, which comprehended everything for holding milk and water, was generally pretty well executed. The cedar-ware, by having alternately a white and red stave, was then thought beautiful; many of their puncheon floors were very neat, their joints close, and the top even and smooth. Their looms, although heavy, did very well. Those who could not exercise these mechanic arts, were under the necessity of giving labor or barter to their neighbors in exchange for the use of them, so far as their necessities required.

For a long time after the first settlement of this country, the inhabitants in general married young. There was no distinction of rank, and very little of fortune. On these accounts the first impression of love resulted in marriage; and a family establishment cost but a little labor, and nothing else. A description of a wedding, from the beginning to the end, will serve to show the manners of our forefathers, and mark the grade of civilization which has succeeded to their rude state of society in the course of a few years. At an early period, the practice of celebrating the marriage at the house of the bride began, and, it should seem, with great propriety. She also had the choice of the priest to perform the ceremony.

A wedding engaged the attention of a whole neighborhood; and the frolic was anticipated by old and young with eager expectation. This is not to be wondered at, when it is told that a wedding was almost the only gathering which was not accompanied with the labor of reaping, log-rolling, building a cabin, or planning some scout or campaign.

In the morning of the wedding-day, the groom and his attendants assembled at the house of his father, for the purpose of reaching the mansion of his bride by noon, which was the usual time for celebrating the nuptials, which for certain must take place before dinner.

Let the reader imagine an assemblage of people, without a store, tailor, or mantuamaker, within 100 miles; and an assemblage of horses, without a blacksmith or saddler within an equal distance. The gentlemen dressed in shoepacks, moccasins, leather breeches, leggins, linsey hunting-shirts, and all home-made. The ladies dressed in linsey petticoats, and linsey or linen bed-gowns, coarse shoes, stockings, handkerchiefs, and buckskin gloves, if any. If there were any buckles, rings, buttons, or ruffles, they were the relics of old times; family pieces, from parents or grand-parents. The horses were caparisoned with old saddles, old bridles or halters, and pack-saddles, with a bag or blanket thrown over them; a rope or string as often constituted the girth as a piece of leather.

The march, in double file, was often interrupted by the narrowness and obstructions of our horse-paths, as they were called, for we had no roads; and these difficulties were often increased, sometimes by the good, and sometimes by the ill-will of neighbors, by falling trees, and tying grape-vines across the way. Sometimes an ambuscade was formed by the wayside, and an unexpected discharge of several guns took place, so as to cover the wedding-party with smoke. Let the reader imagine the scene which followed this discharge; the sudden spring of the horses, the shrieks of the girls, and the chivalric bustle of their partners to save them from falling. Sometimes, in spite of all that could be done to prevent it, some were thrown to the ground. If a wrist, elbow, or ankle happened to be sprained, it was tied with a handkerchief, and little more was thought or said about it.

Another ceremony commonly took place before the party reached the house of the bride, after the practice of making whiskey began, which was at an early period ; when the party were about a mile from the place of their destination, two young men would single out to run for the bottle ; the worse the path, the more logs, brush, and deep hollows, the better, as these obstacles afforded an opportunity for the greater display of intrepidity and horsemanship. The English fox-chase, in point of danger to the riders and their horses, is nothing to this race for the bottle. The start was announced by an Indian yell ; logs, brush, muddy hollows, hill and glen, were speedily passed by the rival ponies. The bottle was always filled for the occasion, so that there was no use for judges ; for the first who reached the door was presented with the prize, with which he returned in triumph to the company. On approaching them, he announced his victory over his rival by a shrill whoop. At the head of the troop, he gave the bottle first to the groom and his attendants, and then to each pair in succession to the rear of the line, giving each a dram ; and then, putting the bottle in the bosom of his hunting-shirt, took his station in the company.

The ceremony of the marriage preceded the dinner, which was a substantial backwoods feast, of beef, pork, fowls, and sometimes venison and bear-meat, roasted and boiled, with plenty of potatoes, cabbage, and other vegetables. During the dinner the greatest hilarity always prevailed, although the table might be a large slab of timber, hewed out with a broadaxe, supported by four sticks set in auger-holes ; and the furniture, some old pewter dishes and plates ; the rest, wooden bowls and trenchers ; a few pewter spoons, much battered about the edges, were to be seen at some tables. The rest were made of horns. If knives were scarce, the deficiency was made up by the scalping-knives, which were carried in sheaths suspended to the belt of the hunting-shirt.

After dinner the dancing commenced, and generally lasted till the next morning. The figures of the dances were three and four-handed reels, or square setts and jigs. The commencement was always a square four, which was followed by what was called jiggling it off ; that is, two of the four would single out for a jig, and were followed by the remaining couple. The jigs were often accompanied with what was called cutting out ; that is, when either of the parties became tired of the dance, on intimation the place was supplied by some one of the company without any interruption of the dance. In this way a dance was often continued till the musician was heartily tired of his situation. Towards the latter part of the night, if any of the company, through weariness, attempted to conceal themselves, for the purpose of sleeping, they were hunted up, paraded on the floor, and the fiddler ordered to play, "Hang out till to-morrow morning."

About 9 or 10 o'clock, a deputation of the young ladies stole off the bride, and put her to bed. In doing this, it frequently happened that they had to ascend a ladder, instead of a pair of stairs, leading from the dining and ball-room to the loft, the floor of which was made of clapboards, lying loose, and without nails. As the foot of the ladder was commonly behind the door, which was purposely opened for the occasion, and its rounds at the inner ends were well hung with hunting-shirts, petticoats, and other articles of clothing, the candles being on the opposite side of the house, the exit of the bride was noticed by but few. This done, a deputation of young men in like manner stole off the groom, and placed him snugly by the side of his bride. The dance still continued ; and if seats happened to be scarce, which was often the case, every young man, when not engaged in the dance, was obliged to offer his lap as a seat for one of the girls ;

and the offer was sure to be accepted. In the midst of this hilarity, the bride and groom were not forgotten. Pretty late in the night, some one would remind the company that the new couple must stand in need of some refreshment ; black Betty, which was the name of the bottle, was called for, and sent up the ladder ; but sometimes black Betty did not go alone. I have many times seen as much bread, beef, pork, and cabbage sent along with her as would afford a good meal for half-a dozen hungry men. The young couple were compelled to eat and drink, more or less, of whatever was offered them.

It often happened that some neighbors or relations, not being asked to the wedding, took offence ; and the mode of revenge adopted by them on such occasions was that of cutting off the manes, foretops, and tails of the horses of the wedding company.

On returning to the infare, the order of procession, and the race for black Betty, was the same as before. The feasting and dancing often lasted for several days, at the end of which the whole company were so exhausted with loss of sleep, that several days' rest were requisite to fit them to return to their ordinary labors.

Should I be asked why I have presented this unpleasant portrait of the rude manners of our forefathers, I in my turn would ask my reader, why are you pleased with the histories of the blood and carnage of battles ? Why are you delighted with the fictions of poetry, the novel, and romance ? I have related truth, and only truth, strange as it may seem. I have depicted a state of society and manners which are fast vanishing from the memory of man, with a view to give the youth of our country a knowledge of the advantages of civilization, and to give contentment to the aged, by preventing them from saying, "that former times were better than the present."

T E N N E S S E E .

Area,	45,600 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	1,109,801
(Whites, 826,782 ; Negroes, 283,019.)	
Population in 1870,	1,258,520

THE State of Tennessee is situated between 35° and $36^{\circ} 36'$ N. latitude, and between $81^{\circ} 40'$ and $90^{\circ} 15'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Kentucky and Virginia, on the east by North Carolina, on the south by North Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, and on the west by Arkansas and Missouri. Its extreme length, from east to west, is about 430 miles, and its average breadth about 110 miles.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The eastern part of the State is crossed by the various ranges of the great Alleghany chain, which are here known as the Stone, Iron, Bald, and Unaka Mountains. The Cumberland Mountains, which form the southeastern border of Kentucky, cross this State in a southwestern direction, and pass into Alabama. They lie about 40 or 50 miles west of the Alleghany range, the valley between them being watered by the Holston, Clinch, and the other head waters of the Tennessee River. The Cumberland Mountains cover an area of about fifty miles wide, and are thickly wooded. Beyond this range a fine rolling country, known as Middle Tennessee, extends westward to the Tennessee River. Between that stream and the Mississippi the land is either greatly rolling or flat.

The Mississippi River washes the entire western shore of the State. Memphis, the principal city, is situated on this river, in the extreme southwestern corner of Tennessee. *The Tennessee River* is formed by

the confluence of the Holston and Clinch rivers, which, rising in the Alleghany Mountains, in Virginia, unite at Kingston, in this State. It flows in a generally southwestern direction to the base of the Cumberland Mountains, at the point where the boundaries of Tennessee, Alabama, and Georgia touch each other, and then sweeps around to the southwest, flows across the entire northern part of Alabama, touches the northeastern corner of Mississippi, and, bending to the north, crosses the States of Tennessee and Kentucky, and empties into the Ohio River at Paducah, 48 miles above the mouth of the latter stream. At Florence, Alabama, 280 miles from its mouth, the navigation is interrupted by the Muscle Shoals, a series of fine rapids, extending for about 20 miles above this point. Beyond these rapids, the stream is again navigable for steamers as far as Knoxville, on the Holston, 500 miles above Florence. The Tennessee is 800 miles long, flowing through this State for 400 miles, and its principal branch, the Holston, 300 miles long, making a total length of 1100 miles. The chief towns of this State on its banks are Knoxville and Chattanooga. It flows for the most part through a beautiful and fertile country. *The Cumberland River*, which flows across the northern part of Middle Tennessee, rises in the Cumberland Mountains in the southeastern part of Kentucky. It enters this State at the northeast angle of Jackson county, and flows in a generally southwestern direction to Nashville, after which its course is mainly northwest. It crosses the southern boundary of Kentucky, about 10 miles east of the Tennessee River, and flows parallel with that stream into the Ohio. It is about 600 miles long. At high water it is navigable for large steamers to Nashville, 200 miles from its mouth, and for small steamers 300 miles higher. *The Forked Deer*, *Big Hatchie*, and *Obion* flow into the Mississippi, and are each navigable for a greater or less distance. All the waters of this State ultimately find their way to the Mississippi.

MINERALS.

“The mineral resources of Tennessee are developed to but a limited extent, though her hills and mountains contain stores of iron, of coal, and of copper, of zinc, of sandstone, and of the finest marble, awaiting the capital, enterprise, and labor that shall dig out and utilize these dormant mines of wealth. Iron ore is found in great abundance in nearly all the counties of Eastern and Middle Tennessee; copper, in Greene, Sevier, Polk, Perry, and other counties; coal, in the coun-

ties of Campbell, Rhea, Marion, etc.; some gold is reported in Polk, salts, in Greene and Hawkins; lead, in Perry; fine marble and building-stones, in Hawkins, Campbell, Monroe, Meigs, Giles, and Williamson; thick stratum of shale, in Coffee, etc., etc. The timber resources are also extensive, embracing a great variety, and many of the finest quality of forest trees—hickory, the various oaks, poplar, walnut, ash, beech, chestnut, locust, cedar, sugar, pine, etc., which cover a large portion of the vast tracts classed 'wild or unimproved lands.' The soil ranges from that of the deep rich bottoms, of exhaustless fertility, to light and hilly uplands, which require high culture to become productive. In a number of counties, the iron interest has been partially developed. In Greene, one furnace is in operation, and a northern company have purchased several thousand acres of ore-lands, and will soon have extensive works completed. Near the town of Greeneville, there is a bed of sulphate of iron, from which copperas was made during the war, and where even the clay is impregnated with the mineral. Our Montgomery correspondent says: 'that within twenty-five miles of Clarksville there are from ten to twenty furnaces lying idle for want of capital; most of them were burned during the war, and the proprietors being unable to rebuild and run them, would sell out very low.' The zinc of Greene county is said to be very rich; during the war, Epsom salts were also made to some extent in the mountains. In Hawkins, our correspondent states, 'there is an underground stream of salt water traversing the valley, which has been tapped at several points, at one of which the manufacture of salt has been successfully prosecuted for a number of years, though not upon a large scale; but it is thought that, with capital and enterprise, it might be made to rival the salt-wells of southwestern Virginia in the production of this valuable product. . . . A most beautiful quality of marble is found at various points in this county; one quarry of which was worked to a considerable extent before the war. Much capital might be profitably invested and many laborers usefully employed in the manufacture and preparation for market of the two articles named—salt and marble—as well as iron, the ore of which is present in the mountains.' Our Marion correspondent says, 'the quantity of bituminous and semi-bituminous coal and iron ore in this county is unlimited, with but little development of the former and none of the latter, though the inducements are great, produce being abundant and transportation good and improving.'”*

* Agricultural Report.

CLIMATE.

The climate is usually mild. Except in the eastern part the winters are short and pleasant, and snow does not often fall. The summers are cool and delightful, and the State is generally healthful. In the mountains the winters, though short, are severe.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

In the mountains of East Tennessee, the land is poor and difficult of cultivation. The valleys, however, are fertile, and amply repay the labor expended upon them. The soil of Middle Tennessee is generally good, whilst that of Western Tennessee consists of a rich black mould.

The staple products are Indian corn, tobacco, and cotton. The agriculture of Tennessee was almost destroyed by the war, the State being, like Virginia, a vast battle-field, but the people are slowly recovering from their losses, and are bringing their crops up to something like the old average.

In 1869, the State contained 6,795,337 acres of improved land. The principal returns for the same year were:

Bushels of wheat,	6,750,000
“ rye,	226,000
“ peas and beans,	547,803
“ oats,	3,500,000
“ Indian corn,	47,500,000
“ Irish potatoes,	1,000,000
Tons of hay,	158,000
Pounds of butter,	10,017,787
Number of horses,	300,975
“ asses and mules,	131,780
“ milch cows,	260,190
“ sheep,	960,312
“ swine,	2,800,312
“ young cattle,	709,360
Value of domestic animals,	\$65,211,425

In 1870, the cotton crop amounted to about 215,000 bales, and the tobacco crop is estimated at about 35,000,000 pounds.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

This State has scarcely any foreign trade. Its cotton is exported from New Orleans, and the most of its other products are disposed

of in that city. Memphis has an important trade with the States along the Mississippi and Ohio rivers and with Arkansas.

Previous to the war manufactures were an important interest in Tennessee, and were becoming more extensive every year. The water power of the State is magnificent, and offers many inducements to capitalists. In 1870 there were 5317 establishments in Tennessee devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts, employing a capital of \$15,595,295, and 19,412 hands, consuming raw material worth \$19,657,027, and yielding an annual product of \$34,362,636.

The principal products were stated as follows for that year :

Value of cotton goods,	\$941,542
“ flour and meal,	10,767,388
“ pig iron,	1,147,707
“ bar and rolled iron,	369,222
“ copper,	510,677
“ coal,	330,498
“ sawed and planed lumber,	3,819,237
“ leather,	1,851,638

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

There were, in 1872, in the State of Tennessee, 1520 miles of completed railroads, constructed at a cost of over \$40,000,000. Nashville, Memphis, and Chattanooga are the principal railroad centres of the State, and are connected with each other and with all parts of the country. Western and Middle Tennessee are covered with a network of roads extending into Kentucky on the North, and Mississippi and Alabama on the south, and the great route from Virginia to the Mississippi crosses the eastern part of the State in a southwest direction, from Bristol to Chattanooga. These railroads were almost entirely destroyed during the war.

EDUCATION.

In 1870, there were in Tennessee 61 colleges, with 5785 students; 801 academies and other schools, with 33,176 pupils; and 1932 public schools, with 82,970 pupils. Schools were organized in this State as early as 1780, in East Tennessee, and by the year 1795 there were 3 colleges in the State.

The new Constitution makes a liberal provision for the support of free schools. A permanent school fund is established, and taxes are levied for the maintenance of the schools. The educational system is placed in charge of a Superintendent of Public Instruction, and is similar to that of West Virginia.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The State Penitentiary is located at Nashville. It is provided with fine commodious buildings, and is conducted on the silent system.

The Tennessee Hospital for the Insane and the *Tennessee Blind School* are located at Nashville. They were damaged greatly, and met with many losses during the war, but have been reopened with success since the return of peace. Measures are on foot for the erection of a hospital for the colored insane.

The Tennessee Deaf and Dumb School is at Knoxville. It was established in 1845. It was broken up during the war, and the building occupied by the two armies, in turn, as a hospital, and greatly damaged. It was reopened in 1866, and is now prosperous.

FINANCES.

In 1870 the State debt amounted to \$29,718,961, of which \$24,900,417 consisted of bonds loaned to railroads. The expenditures of the treasury for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1867, were \$2,259,522, and the receipts \$2,336,445.

In 1868 there were 12 National banks, with a capital of \$2,025,300, doing business in the State.

GOVERNMENT.

By the Constitution of this State every male citizen 21 years old, residing in the State 1 year and in the county 6 months, who has paid the poll tax specified by the Constitution, is entitled to vote at the elections.

The government of the State is vested in a Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Comptroller, Attorney-General, and a General Assembly, consisting of a Senate and House of Delegates. The Governor and members of the Legislature are elected by the people for two years. The State officers, with the exception of the Attorney-General, are elected for four years by the Legislature. The Attorney-General is appointed by the judges of the Supreme Court.

The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court, Courts of Chancery, Circuit Courts, County Courts, and Justices' Courts. The Supreme Court consists of 5 judges, no two of which must reside in the same part of the State.

The seat of Government is at Nashville.

For purposes of government the State is divided into 84 counties.

HISTORY.

Tennessee originally formed a part of the province of North Carolina. It was, at the time of its settlement, a vast wilderness, which was claimed as a hunting ground by the Chickasaws, Choctaws, Shawnees, and the Six Nations. The Cherokees dwelt in the extreme south-east part, but no other tribe made the Territory a place of habitation.

In 1756 Andrew Lewis was sent into this region for the purpose of settling it, by the Earl of Loudon, then the Governor of Virginia, and commander of the Royal forces in America. He built a post, which he called Fort Loudon, on the Wautauga or Little Tennessee, about 30 miles southwest of Knoxville. This settlement is now a thriving village. The fort was given a strong garrison of British troops, and, influenced by the sense of the protection which this force imparted, the region round about was soon partially settled by emigrants, and in the spring of 1758 the garrison of the fort was increased to 200 men.

In 1758, Colonel Bird built a post in what is now Sullivan county. This was for some time believed to be in Virginia, and was called Long Island Fort.

In 1768, many families came out to the new region, and settled along the Holston and Wautauga rivers. In 1769, or 1770, a party of 10 hunters descended the Cumberland River to the Ohio, in boats which they had built, stopping for a while at the site of the present city of Nashville. They descended the Ohio to the Mississippi, and passed down that river to Natchez, which was then a Spanish settlement. They were kindly treated by the Spaniards, and some of them remained there, but others returned to the settlements along the Wautauga.

In 1760, Fort Loudon was besieged by the Cherokees, and closely invested for a month. The garrison, 200 in number, consumed their horses and dogs, and finally, being on the point of starvation, surrendered upon condition that they should be allowed to return to Virginia. They were suffered to depart and to march 15 miles from the fort without being molested, but when they had accomplished that distance, were treacherously attacked and nearly all massacred on the spot. This outrage was avenged the next year by Colonel Grant, who, with a force of 2600 regular and provincial troops and friendly Indians, invaded the Cherokee country and laid waste their fields and villages. These severe measures compelled the savages to sue for peace.

By the outbreak of the Revolution the Tennessee country was quite thickly settled, and the population was increasing at an encouraging rate. In 1776, the Cherokees, incited by the British, waged a formidable war upon the settlers, but were defeated by the forces of Virginia and North Carolina. The Tennessee settlements, at this time known as the "District of Washington," were represented in the Convention which framed the Constitution of North Carolina, and, in 1780, the Tennessee militia, under Colonel Levier, bore a conspicuous part in the bloody battle of King's Mountain.*

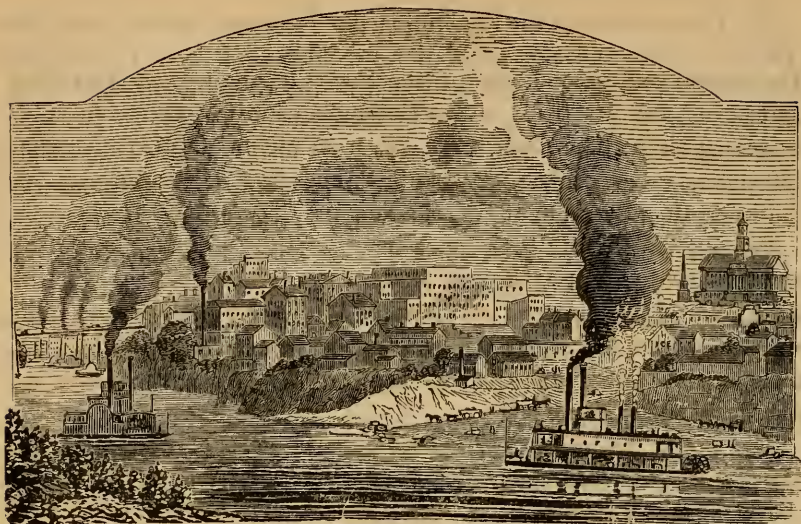
After the war lands in this region were offered the North Carolina troops in payment of the bounties due them. Many of them accepted the offer and settled on the lands. Others sold their warrants to actual settlers. Nashville had been settled by a party of two or three hundred, under Colonel Robertson, as early as 1780, and the rich lands of Davidson county, lying around it, now attracted the greater part of the holders of the military warrants.

In 1785, the inhabitants of the present counties of Sullivan, Washington, and Greene, attempted to set up an independent State Government, as they declared, and with truth, that the capital of North Carolina was too far away to benefit them. They called their new State *Franklin*. This course produced considerable confusion, which was not quieted until 1790, when North Carolina ceded the territory to the United States. Congress established a Territorial Government, and the region was called "The Territory of the United States southwest of the Ohio River."

In 1794, the Territory of Tennessee was organized, and the Legislature met at Knoxville. The next year it was found that it contained a population of 77,262, of which 10,613 were negro slaves. Efforts were now made to secure its erection into a State, and on the 1st of June, 1796, Tennessee was admitted into the Union.

The State took an active part in the second war with England, and contributed to the cause Andrew Jackson, who won the victory of New Orleans, and many of the hardy backwoodsmen who fought under him that day.

After the return of peace, Tennessee entered upon a career of prosperity, which was checked by the Rebellion. Being a slaveholding State, it was expected that the people would take sides with the extreme pro-slavery party. When the Gulf States seceded from the Union in the winter of 1860-61, Tennessee was urged to join them. The Legislature submitted to the people the call for a Convention, for



NASHVILLE.

the purpose of seceding, and this call was defeated by a popular majority of 64,114. After the fall of Fort Sumter, however, the Governor convened the Legislature in extra-session, and on the 9th of May, 1861, that body adopted an Ordinance of Secession, and sent representatives and senators to the Confederate Congress. Western and Middle Tennessee were very clearly in sympathy with this action of the Legislature, but East Tennessee was loyal to the Union.

The State was at once occupied by the Confederates, and in the spring of 1862, the western and northern portions fell into the hands of the Union forces. Volunteers enlisted on each side, and the State became the western battle-field of both armies. The severe battles of Fort Donnelson, Shiloh and Pittsburg Landing, Murfreesboro, Chattanooga, Knoxville, and Nashville, were fought within the limits of the State.

After the close of the war, a Provisional Governor was appointed, and the State was restored to its former position in the Union on the 24th of July, 1866.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the principal cities and towns of the State are, Memphis, Knoxville, Chattanooga, and Murfreesboro.

NASHVILLE,

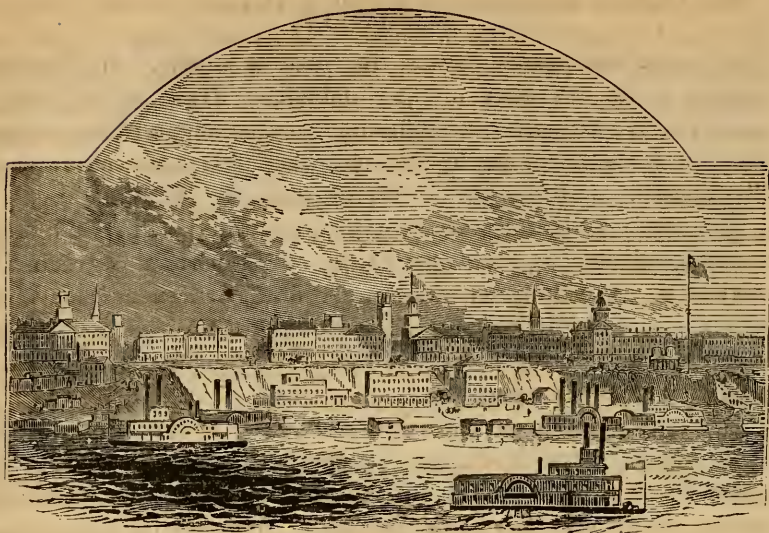
The capital and second city of the State, is situated in Davidson county, on the left bank of the Cumberland River, at the head of steamboat navigation, about 200 miles from the mouth of that stream, 230 miles east-northeast of Memphis, and 684 miles southwest of Washington. Latitude $36^{\circ} 9' N$; longitude $86^{\circ} 49' W$.

The city is delightfully situated in a beautiful, healthy, and fertile country, and has long been one of the most important places in the southwest. It is built on an elevated bluff of limestone, and commands fine views of the river and vicinity. It is regularly laid off, and contains many handsome edifices. Many of the residences are palatial in their character.

The public buildings are handsome. The *Capitol* is one of the finest edifices on the continent. It stands on an eminence 197 feet above the river, and is built of fine fossilated limestone, much like marble, which was quarried on the spot. Many of the blocks weigh 10 tons each. Its dimensions are 270 by 140 feet. "Its architecture is Grecian, consisting of a Doric basement, and supporting on its four fronts, Ionic porticoes, modelled after those of the Erechtheum at Athens." In the centre of the building is a tower 80 feet high. The halls of the Legislature are among the handsomest in the country, being surpassed only by those of the two Houses of Congress. The cost of the capitol was \$1,000,000 in gold. The *Lunatic Asylum*, and the *State Penitentiary* are imposing buildings. The latter contains 200 cells. The *City Hall* is also a handsome building.

The schools of the city are noted for their excellence. It has several public schools in operation, and one for colored children. The *University of Nashville*, founded in 1806, is an institution of high character. Its Medical Department is regarded as an excellent school. The female schools are considered the best in the State. The State Library contains over 12,000 volumes.

The Cumberland River is crossed here by a fine bridge. The river is navigable for steamers during the greater part of the year, and Nashville is the seat of a heavy river trade. It has railway communication with all parts of the State and country. It contains about 14 churches, and about 8 newspaper and 4 magazine offices. It is lighted with gas, is supplied with water from the Cumberland River, and possesses a steam fire-engine department, and an efficient police force. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 25,865.



MEMPHIS.

Nashville has long been noted for its enterprising spirit, literary taste, and polished society. It is in everything but geographical position a Southern rather than a Western city. It was founded in 1779, by a party of emigrants from North Carolina, and established as a town by the Assembly of that State, in 1784. It was named in honor of Colonel Francis Nash, who fell at the head of his regiment at Germantown. It suffered very greatly during the civil war. It was occupied by the United States army in February, 1862, and held until the close of the war. On the 16th of December, 1864, General Thomas, in command of the United States forces, inflicted a bloody defeat upon the Confederate army, under General Hood, in the vicinity.

MEMPHIS,

The largest city in the State, is situated in Shelby county, on the east bank of the Mississippi River, just below the mouth of Wolf River, 420 miles below St. Louis, 956 miles above New Orleans, and 230 miles west-southwest of Nashville. It stands on the 4th Chickasaw Bluff, and possesses the only convenient location for a commercial city between the mouth of the Ohio and Vicksburg, Mississippi, a distance of 650 miles. Possessing this, it has become the most populous and important place on the river, between St. Louis and New Orleans.

The bluff, on which the city is built, is elevated 60 feet above the river, and is about 3 miles in length. At its base a bed of sandstone projects into the river, and forms the levee or landing. The city lies entirely on the bluff above, and presents a fine appearance when viewed from the river. An esplanade, several hundred feet in width, occupies the front of the plateau, and this is lined with handsome buildings, which face the river. The general appearance of the city is attractive, and many of the business edifices and private residences would do credit to any city in the land.

Memphis is lighted with gas, and a street railway connects its various points. It contains about 24 good public schools, several private schools, a Mercantile Library, 20 churches, and 10 newspaper offices. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 40,226.

Memphis is the most important city on the lower Mississippi, besides New Orleans. It has grown with surprising rapidity, notwithstanding the civil war, which injured it severely. It is connected with all parts of the country by railway, and controls a large share of the enormous trade of the Mississippi.

MISCELLANY.

THE BOYHOOD OF ANDREW JACKSON.

His parents were Scotch-Irish emigrants from Carrickfergus, of the humblest condition in life, and to add to the struggles of the family with adversity, his father died just after the birth of his son. His mother was obliged to find a home, as housekeeper and poor relation, in the family of a brother-in-law, and here young Andrew passed the first ten or twelve years of his life. He soon acquired the reputation of being the most mischievous boy in the neighborhood, always full of pranks and getting into trouble. His school-days were not of the most promising character; nor, judging from Mr. Parton's lively description, was his youthful brain in danger of being turned by any superfluity of book-learning.

In due time the boy was sent to an "old-field school," an institution not much unlike the road-side schools in Ireland of which we read. The Northern reader is, perhaps, not aware that an "old-field" is not a field at all, but a pine forest. When crop after crop of cotton, without rotation, has exhausted the soil, the fences are taken away, the land lies waste, the young pines at once spring up, and soon cover the whole field with a thick growth of wood. In one of these old fields, the rudest possible shanty of a log house is erected, with a fire-place that extends from side to side, and occupies a third of the interior. In winter, the interstices of the log walls are filled up with clay; which the restless fingers of the boys make haste to remove in time to admit the first warm airs of spring. An itinerant schoolmaster presents himself in a neighborhood; the responsible farmers pledge him a certain number of pupils, and an old-field school is established for the season. Such schools, called by the same name, exist to this day

in the Carolinas, differing little from those which Andrew Jackson attended in his childhood. Reading, writing, and arithmetic were all the branches taught in the early day. Among a crowd of urchins seated on the slab benches of a school like this, fancy a tall, slender boy, with bright blue eyes, a freckled face, an abundance of long, sandy hair, and clad in coarse, copperas-colored cloth, with bare feet dangling and kicking, and you have in your mind's eye a picture of Andy as he appeared in his old-field school days in the Waxhaw settlement.

His mother seems to have had more ambitious views for her son, and hoped that by being enabled to obtain for him a liberal education, she would have the pleasure to see him "wag his pow in a pulpit" as a clergyman of the Presbyterian Church. He was not destined, however, to "beat the drum ecclesiastic," though if his good mother's wishes could have been realized, he would doubtless have proved a valiant soldier of the "church militant," and dealt thick and heavy blows on the sinner and heretic with as much unction as he subsequently discomfited the invaders of his country at New Orleans. He was a fighter from his earliest boyhood. Not a drop of tame blood ran in his veins.

Andy was a wild, frolicsome, wilful, mischievous, daring, reckless boy; generous to a friend, but never content to submit to a stronger enemy. He was passionately fond of those sports which are mimic battles—above all, wrestling. Being a slender boy, more active than strong, he was often thrown.

"I could throw him three times out of four," an old schoolmate used to say, "but he would never *stay throwed*. He was dead game, even then, and never *would* give up."

He was exceedingly fond of running foot races, of leaping the bar, and jumping, and in such sports he was excelled by no one of his years. To younger boys, who never questioned his mastery, he was a generous protector; there was nothing he would not do to defend them. His equals and superiors found him self-willed, somewhat overbearing, easily offended, *very* irascible, and, upon the whole, "difficult to get along with." One of them said, many years after, in the heat of controversy, that of all the boys he had ever known, Andrew Jackson was the only bully who was not also a coward.

But the boy, it appears, had a special cause of irritation in a disgraceful disease, name unknown, which induces a habit of—not to put too fine a point on it—"slobbering." Woe to any boy who presumed to jest at this misfortune! Andy was upon him incontinently, and there was either a fight or a drubbing. There is a story, too, of some boys secretly loading a gun to the muzzle, and giving it to young Jackson to fire off, that they might have the pleasure of seeing it "kick" him over. They *had* that pleasure. Springing up from the ground, the boy, in a frenzy of passion, exclaimed: "By —, if one of you laughs, I'll kill him!"

He soon had an opportunity for pursuing higher game. He was 9 years old when the Declaration of Independence was signed. By the time the war approached the obscure settlement in the region of the Catawba, where he was born, he was a little more than 13. A change now came over his rustic life. The schoolhouse was closed, the peaceful labors of the people interrupted. His elder brother Hugh had already mounted his horse and ridden southward to meet the bloody strife. It was on the 29th of May, 1780, that Tarleton, with 300 horsemen, surprised a detachment of militia in the Waxhaw settlement, and killed 113 of them, and wounded 150. The wounded, abandoned to the care of the settlers, were quartered in the houses of the vicinity, the old log Waxhaw meeting-house

itself being converted into a hospital for the most desperate cases. Mrs. Jackson was one of the kind women who ministered to the wounded soldiers in the church, and under that roof her boys first saw what war was. The men were dreadfully mangled. Some had received as many as thirteen wounds, and none less than three. For many days Andrew and his brother assisted their mother in waiting upon the sick men; Andrew, more in rage than pity, though pitiful by nature, burning to avenge their wounds and his brother's death.

Tarleton's massacre at the Waxhaw settlement kindled the flames of war in all that region of the Carolinas. Andrew, with his brother Robert, was present at Sumter's attack on the British post at Hanging Rock, where he might have received his first lesson in the art of war. Soon after he passed his 14th birthday, there ensued a fierce, intestine warfare in the vicinity of his home—a war of Whig and Tory, neighbor against neighbor, brother against brother, and even father against son. Among other instances of the madness that prevailed, a case is related of a Whig, who, having found a friend murdered and mutilated, devoted himself to the slaying of Tories. He hunted and lay in wait for them, and before the war ended had killed 20, and then, recovering from that insanity, lived the rest of his days a conscience-stricken wretch. Andrew and his brother soon began to take a personal share in the eventful conflict. Without enlisting in any regular corps, they plunged into the fight on their own hook, joining small parties that went out on single enterprises of retaliation, mounted on their own horses, and carrying their own weapons. Mr. Parton gives a description of one of his adventures in this line, which illustrates both the time and the boy:

"In that fierce, Scotch-Indian warfare, the absence of a father from home was often a better protection to his family than his presence, because his presence invited an attack. The main object of both parties was to kill the fighting men, and to avenge the slaying of partisans. The house of the quiet hero Hicks, for example, was safe until it was noised about among the Tories that Hicks was at home. And thus it came to pass, that when a Whig soldier of note desired to spend a night with his family, his neighbors were accustomed to turn out and serve as a guard to his house while he slept. Behold Robert and Andrew Jackson, with 6 others, thus employed one night in the spring of 1781, at the domicile of a neighbor, Captain Sands. The guard on this occasion was more a friendly tribute to an active partisan than a service considered necessary to his safety. In short, the night was not far advanced before the whole party were snugly housed and stretched upon the floor, all sound asleep except one, a British deserter, who was restless, and dozed at intervals.

"Danger was near. A band of Tories, bent on taking the life of Captain Sands, approached the house in two divisions, one party moving toward the front door, the other toward the back. The wakeful soldier, hearing a suspicious noise, rose, went out of doors to learn its cause, and saw the foe stealthily nearing the house. He ran in in terror, and seizing Andrew Jackson, who lay next the door, by the hair, exclaimed: 'The Tories are upon us!'

"Andrew sprang up and ran out. Seeing a body of men in the distance, he placed the end of his gun in the low fork of a tree near the door and hailed them. No reply. He hailed them a second time. No reply. They quickened their pace, and had come within a few rods of the door. By this time, too, the guard in the house had been roused, and were gathered in a group behind the boy. Andrew discharged his musket, upon which the Tories fired a volley, which killed the hapless deserter who had given the alarm. The other party of Tories,

who were approaching the house from the other side, hearing this discharge, and the rush of bullets above their heads, supposed that the firing proceeded from a party that had issued from the house. *They* now fired a volley, which sent a shower of balls whistling about the heads of their friends on the other side. Both parties hesitated, and then halted. Andrew having thus, by his single discharge, puzzled and stopped the enemy, retired to the house, where he and his comrades kept up a brisk fire from the windows. One of the guard fell mortally wounded by his side, and another received a wound less severe. In the midst of this singular contest, a bugle was heard, some distance off, sounding the cavalry charge, whereupon the Tories, concluding that they had come upon an ambush of Whigs, and were about to be assailed by horse and foot, fled to where they had left their horses, mounted, dashed pell-mell into the woods, and were seen no more. It appeared afterward that the bugle charge was sounded by a neighbor, who, judging from the noise of musketry that Captain Sands was attacked, and having not a man with him in his house, gave the blast upon the trumpet, thinking that even a trick so stale, aided by the darkness of the night, might have some effect in alarming the assailants."

After peace was restored to his neighborhood, young Jackson embraced every opportunity to engage in a "free fight," beside sharing largely in the fun and frolic, which were almost as congenial to his disposition as the drubbing of an adversary. Several Charleston families of wealth and distinction were waiting in the settlement for the evacuation of their city. With the young men whose acquaintance he thus made, Andrew led a life in the summer and autumn of 1782 that was more merry than wise. He now began to betray that taste for horse-flesh which became such a decided passion in after life. He ran races and rode races, gambled a little, drank a little, indulged in a cock-fight occasionally, and presented a glorious specimen of the Young America at that day. He seems to have had but a faint love for his Carolina relations, and was probably regarded as the scapegrace of the family.

It is credibly related that his first attempt at earning a living for himself was in the capacity of a country schoolmaster; but, after trying his hand in this uncongenial employment for a short time, he resolved to study law. Gathering together his scanty earnings, he mounts his horse, sets his face to the northward in quest of a master with whom to pursue his law studies, and finally enters an office in Salisbury, N. C., at the age of 18. Of his residence in that pleasant old town, Mr. Parton has succeeded in bagging some characteristic if not altogether edifying reminiscences:

"Salisbury teems with traditions respecting the residence there of Andrew Jackson as a student of law. Their general tenor may be expressed in the language of the first old resident of the town, to whom I applied for information: 'Andrew Jackson was the most roaring, rollicking, game-cocking, horse-racing, card-playing, mischievous fellow that ever lived in Salisbury.' Add to this such expressions as these: 'He did not trouble the law books much,' 'He was more in the stable than in the office,' 'He was the head of all the rowdies hereabouts.' That is the substance of what the Salisbury of 1859 has to say of the Andrew Jackson of 1785.

KENTUCKY.

Area,	37,680 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	1,155,684
(Whites, 919,517 ; Negroes, 236,167.)	
Population in 1870,	1,321,911

THE State of Kentucky is situated between $36^{\circ} 30'$ and $39^{\circ} 10'$ N. latitude, and between $81^{\circ} 50'$ and $89^{\circ} 26'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, on the east by West Virginia and Virginia, on the south by Tennessee, and on the west by Indiana, Illinois and Missouri. It is very irregular in shape, the northern line following the windings of the Ohio River. Its extremê length, from east to west, is about 300 miles, and its greatest width (following a line drawn south from Cincinnati, Ohio) about 180 miles. At its southwest end it is not over 50 miles wide.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The southeast part of the State is crossed by the Cumberland Mountains, which separate it from Virginia. Some outlying ridges of this range, none of them more than 2000 feet high, extend into the south-east counties. The centre of the State is a fine rolling country, but west of the 85th meridian of longitude the surface is principally level, except along the Ohio River, which is bordered by a range of hills. These hills approach the stream as near as half a mile in some places, and in others recede from it to a distance of 10 or 20 miles.

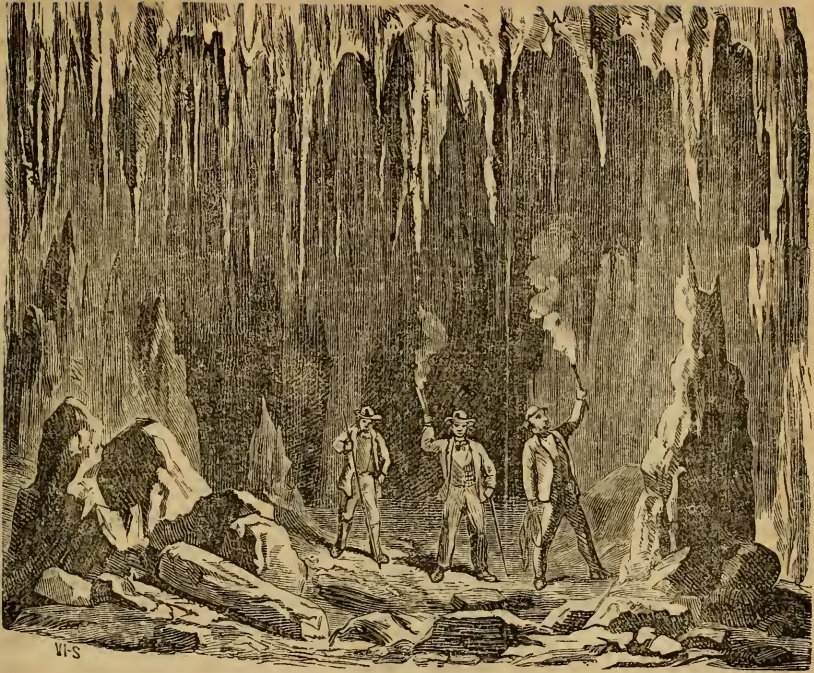
The Ohio River washes the entire northern and northwestern shore of the State, and receives the waters of the Big Sandy (which separates Kentucky from West Virginia), Licking, Kentucky, Salt, Green, Cumberland and Tennessee rivers. It borders the State for 600

miles, and is navigable for large steamers the whole distance. *The Kentucky River* rises in the southeast part of the State, the *Licking* in the northeast, the *Salt* and the *Green* rivers in the centre. All flow in a generally northwest course. They are all navigable for over 50 miles, except the Licking.

MINERALS.

“Kentucky is rich in mineral resources, and her beds of coal and mountains of iron are almost inexhaustible. Coal is found in abundance at Greenup, Rockcastle, Laurel, Pulaski, Whitley, Clinton, Edmonson, Hardin, Ohio, Butler, Christian, Webster, and other counties. In most of these counties this coal is of excellent quality, but used only for home consumption, there being no means of transportation. In Laurel county, the coal beds are from 3 to 5 feet in thickness. Iron is found in greater or less quantity in Greenup, Trimble, Rockcastle, Pulaski, Whitley, Russell, Clinton, Edmonson, Ohio, Butler, etc., but, like the coal deposits, has been but feebly developed. In Greenup, the furnaces are closed up, ore within reach of present facilities being pretty well exhausted. Iron ore is found all through Russell county. ‘About 35 years since a very superior iron was manufactured here, from which some of the blacksmiths made good edged tools without steel. The iron was hard and tough. There has been no development since, and it is doubted whether the ore is in sufficient quantity to pay for working.’ This ore also abounds in Clinton county, and David Dale Owen, in his Geological Survey of Kentucky, in speaking of this and counties east of it, says:—‘There is every reason for believing that their resources in coal and iron—staple commodities of those nations of greatest prosperity—will, when fully developed, compare favorably with those of any civilized country on the face of the earth.’ In Butler county there is much iron ore, but it is said to be of the honeycomb variety, which is considered comparatively valueless. A large amount of capital could be profitably invested in utilizing the iron interest of this State.

“Lead is found in Trimble, Owen, Bourbon, Scott, Franklin, Anderson, Livingston, and counties contiguous. In Anderson there is a mine said to yield 80 per cent. of lead, but the chemist making the test reported that it would not pay to work it. In Livingston, lead has been found upon the surface, but has not been worked to any extent. Salt wells exist in several counties, but are not worked. In



INSIDE MAMMOTH CAVE.

Clinton, says our correspondent, 'a fine stream of salt water has been struck on Willis Creek, in the northwest, and a company are now at work producing salt, and the prospect is considered good. There is a fine opening for men experienced in salt making, there being an abundance of water, and timber and labor is cheap. Salt for the Nashville market and for the Cumberland River country comes from Ohio and Western Virginia. The cost of shipping salt down the Ohio and up the Cumberland is certainly much greater than down the Cumberland to Nashville.' Salt water also abounds in Metcalfe, Anderson, Whitley, Russell, etc. There has recently been discovered a gold mine in Anderson county, and its value is being now tested by a company. Saltpetre is found in Rockcastle, and limestone and freestone abound in Lewis, Trimble, Clarke, and other counties. Our Lewis county correspondent claims for his county 'the finest ledge of freestone from Pittsburg to Cincinnati, from which nearly all the fine buildings in the latter city are now being built, and the rock of which the Cincinnati and Covington bridge was built was taken from

the quarries of this county ; not extensively worked, there being but one quarry in operation, employing 200 men.'” *

CLIMATE.

The climate is mild and healthful. The winters are short and pleasant, and the summers are cool and delightful. The State is almost exempt from the sudden changes which afflict the Atlantic States.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

As a general rule the soil of Kentucky is extremely fertile. Scarcely any of the land is unfit for cultivation. The soil is generally a black mould, often two and three feet deep. Extensive and almost impenetrable canebrakes occur in various parts of the State, and fine natural pastures occupy a region lying in the south central part, along the sources of the Green River, and known as the “Barrens.”

The State is almost exclusively agricultural in its pursuits. The great staples are corn, tobacco, flax, hemp, and wheat. There are 20,563,652 acres of improved and unimproved land in the State, valued at \$217,672,826. The tobacco crop, in 1870, amounted to 90,000 hhds. In 1869, the principal returns were as follows :

Bushels of wheat,	5,500,000
“ Indian corn,	51,500,000
“ oats,	5,800,000
“ Irish potatoes,	2,100,000
“ rye,	775,000
“ barley,	304,000
Tons of hay,	155,000
Number of horses,	650,811
“ asses and mules,	140,910
“ milch cows,	280,191
“ sheep,	1,001,861
“ swine,	2,690,870
“ young cattle,	610,845
Value of domestic animals,	\$69,868,237
Pounds of wool (estimated),	2,500,000
“ flax “	800,000

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

Kentucky has no foreign commerce, but carries on an active trade with the States along the Mississippi and Ohio rivers. Stock raising

* Agricultural Report, March, 1868.

forms an important interest in this State, and large droves of cattle, horses, and mules are annually sent to the Eastern States for sale.

In 1870 there were in this State 5390 establishments devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts. They employed a capital of \$29,277,809, and produced goods worth \$54,625,809. The principal products were as follows:

Value of woollen goods,	\$897,057
“ agriculturaltu implements,	1,384,917
“ pig iron,	2,182,482
“ rolled iron,	2,464,923
“ steam engines and machinery,	1,472,199
“ coal,	446,795
“ sawed and planed lumber,	4,245,749
“ flour,	7,886,734
“ spirituous and malt liquors,	5,222,089
“ leather,	1,693,574

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In 1872, there were 1123 miles of completed railroads in Kentucky, constructed at a cost of over \$35,000,000. The principal cities and towns in the northern, central, and western portions of the State are connected with each other and with all parts of the Union by railroad, but still many of the finest sections of the State are without such means of communication with the cities on the Ohio. Several important roads have been projected, and if constructed will remedy this defect. A canal extends around the falls of the Ohio, at Louisville. It is one mile and a half long, and was constructed by the General Government at a cost of \$750,000.

EDUCATION.

In 1870, Kentucky contained 55 colleges, with nearly 8000 students; 857 academies and other schools, with about 28,000 pupils; and 4237 public schools, with 218,240 pupils.

The public school system is in charge of a Superintendent of Public Instruction, Boards of County Commissioners and local trustees in the districts, and measures are being carried out which will revolutionize the old system and render it more efficient. The State has a permanent school fund.

The most important institution in the State is the *Kentucky University*. This now includes the State University established in 1858,

Transylvania University, and the Agricultural College. It is located at Lexington, and includes "Ashland," the home of Henry Clay.

In 1870, there were 5546 libraries in the State, with 1,909,230 volumes; and the number of newspapers and periodicals was 89, of which 72 were political, 7 religious, and 1 literary.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The State Penitentiary is located at Frankfort. In January, 1871, it contained 680 convicts. Considerable additions have been recently added to the buildings.

There are two *Lunatic Asylums*, the "Eastern," at Lexington, and the "Western," at Hopkinsville. The former contained 258 inmates, in October, 1867, and the latter 283, in September, 1868.

The Kentucky Institution for Deaf Mutes is located at Danville, and contains about 96 pupils; and the *Institution for the Education and Training of Feeble-minded Children* is at Danville, and contains about 52 pupils.

The State has no juvenile reformatory establishments in operation, but the new *House of Reform* was completed and ready for use in the summer of 1871.

RELIGIOUS DEMOMINATIONS.

In 1870, there were 2696 churches in this State, and the value of church property was \$9,824,465.

FINANCES.

On the 10th of October, 1870, the total debt of the State was \$1,424,934. The total expenditures of the Treasury for the fiscal year ending in October, 1870, amounted to \$1,082,639, and the receipts to \$996,750.

In October, 1868, there were 15 National banks, with a capital of \$2,885,000, doing business in the State.

GOVERNMENT.

Every white male citizen, 21 years old, who has resided two years in the State, one year in the county, and sixty days in the precinct in which he presents his ballot, is entitled to vote at the elections.

The Government is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Auditor, Treasurer, and Attorney-General, and a

General Assembly, composed of a Senate (of 38 members, elected for four years, one half retiring biennially) and a House of Delegates (of 100 members, elected for two years). The Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Auditor, and Attorney-General, and Members of the Legislature are elected by the people. The Secretary of State is appointed by the Governor, and confirmed by the Senate. All the State officers serve four years.

The courts of the State are a Supreme Court of Appeals (consisting of four judges), Circuit Courts, County Courts, and Justices' Courts. All the judges are Justices of the Peace, and all are elected by the people. In the Supreme Court, the judge having the shortest term to serve is the Chief Justice.

The seat of Government is at Frankfort.

For purposes of government the State is divided into 109 counties.

HISTORY.

Kentucky was originally included within the limits of Virginia. The name is an Indian word, signifying "the dark and bloody ground." In 1766, Colonel James Smith made a journey of exploration into this region, starting from the Holston River. He was accompanied by three white men and a negro slave. He found the territory unoccupied by any Indian tribes for purposes of residence, but evidently used as a hunting-ground by several of them. It gave evidence of great fertility, and its rich beauty impressed the explorers profoundly. In 1767, John Findley and several companions set out from North Carolina on a trading expedition to this region, and in 1769, Daniel Boone entered it with a party of five, in which went John Findley, for the purpose of exploring it. The party built a cabin on Red River, from which they made repeated excursions. During one of these excursions, Boone and a man named Stuart were captured by the Indians. They made their escape, and returned to their camp. They found it deserted and destroyed, but never learned the fate of those whom they had left there. Soon after this, Boone returned to his home in North Carolina.

In 1770, a party of Tennesseans, from the Clinch River, under Colonel James Knox, went into Kentucky. They remained there some time, and thoroughly explored the southern and middle parts. Boone's party was in Kentucky at this time, but never encountered Colonel Knox or any of his men. They confined their explorations to the middle and northern sections.

The reports of Boone and Knox caused the settlers of Virginia and North Carolina to feel a lively interest in the new country, in which the lands given to the Virginia troops, for services in the French war, were located. Surveyors were soon after sent out to lay off these lands, and in 1773, a party, under Captain Bullit, reached the falls of the Ohio, and built a fortified camp there, for the purpose of surveying the region.

In 1774, James Harrod built a station, which soon grew into considerable importance, and thus founded the town of Harrodsburg, the oldest settlement in Kentucky.

The next year, 1775, Daniel Boone built a fort on the site of the present town of Boonesborough. The savages made repeated attacks upon his party, hoping to drive them away, but without success. The fort was finished by the middle of April, 1775, and soon after Boone was joined by his wife and daughters. He continued to reside in the fort with them.

In the same year Simon Kenton built a cabin on the site of the present town of Washington, in Mason county.

In the spring of 1777, the General Assembly of Virginia constituted the Kentucky region a county, and established a Court of Quarter Sessions at Harrodsburg.

During the Revolution the settlements suffered much from the British and Indians. In 1780, several of the forts were taken by them, cannon being employed for their reduction.

A large number of settlers came out in 1780 and 1781, notwithstanding the danger from the Indians. On the 19th of August, 1782, a bloody battle was fought between the whites and the savages, near Blue Lick Springs, in which the former were defeated. For some years after this, numerous expeditions were sent from Kentucky into the Indian country (the present State of Ohio) and many severe conflicts were fought in that region.

After the close of the Revolution, the Government of Virginia and the Federal Congress afforded so little protection to the settlers that they became restless and discontented. The trouble was increased by the fear that the Federal Government meant to surrender the right to navigate the Mississippi, which the settlers saw would be essential to the future prosperity of their country. It was some time before these discontents were quieted. In 1774 and in 1775, conventions were held at Danville, which recommended peaceable and quiet separation from Virginia, and the establishment of a separate Government for

Kentucky. Several other conventions were held, during which a desire for a separate nationality was distinctly expressed. Spain endeavored to draw the Kentuckians off from the Union by offers of special privileges on the Mississippi, but better counsels prevailed, and the Kentuckians adopted an address to Congress. The result was that the Territory of Kentucky was ceded by Virginia to the General Government. It was fully organized by Congress in 1790, and in 1792 was admitted into the Union as a State. Its population now numbered 75,000. The inefficient protection against the Indians afforded by the Federal Government, the taxes, and the Mississippi question continued to agitate the State for some years, and until the purchase of Louisiana put an end to the Mississippi dispute, and the peace of 1815 broke the power of the savages.

During the second war with England, Kentucky contributed many troops to the western army under General Harrison. Many of her best citizens were killed at the massacre at the River Raisin, and in the attempt to relieve Fort Meigs. Her citizens responded promptly to the call for troops for the defence of New Orleans, and the Kentucky riflemen made a proud name on the plains of Chalmette. Indeed, they volunteered so fast that the State authorities had to intervene, and compel them to remain at home. The Kentucky troops nobly sustained their old reputation in the war with Mexico.

The State grew rapidly in population and wealth, and was prospering beyond the most sanguine expectations of its original founders. When the Rebellion broke out, the people were divided in sentiment, and a strong effort was made to withdraw the State from the Union, and unite it with the Confederacy. Failing to accomplish this, the friends of the South crossed the Tennessee line, and entered the Confederate army. The State authorities, however, remained loyal to the Union, and the regular administration of the Government, though much interrupted, was continued. The State was invaded by the Confederate forces in the summer of 1861, and was held by them until the next spring, when they were forced back into Tennessee. In the summer of 1862, it was again invaded by the Confederates. Several severe battles were fought on its soil, and it was frequently entered and harassed by raiding parties.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the principal cities and towns are, Louisville, Lexington, Covington, Newport, Maysville, Henderson, Paducah, Columbus, Hickman, Danville, and Paris.

FRANKFORT,

The capital of the State, is situated in Franklin county, on the north-east bank of the Kentucky River, 60 miles from its mouth, 53 miles east of Louisville, and 550 miles west of Washington. Latitude $38^{\circ} 14' N.$, longitude $84^{\circ} 40' W.$ The site of the town is a deep valley, surrounded by abrupt hills. Towards the northeast it rises to a considerable height, and from this portion of the town views may be had of some most exquisite scenery.

The city is regularly laid out, and is generally well built. Many of the houses are constructed of a fine limestone or marble which abounds in the vicinity. The general appearance of the city is handsome and picturesque.

The State *Capitol* is a fine building of white marble. It stands on an eminence near the centre of the town. Frankfort contains the Governor's House, the State Penitentiary, the State Arsenal, a Court House, six churches, several good schools, the State Institution for Feeble Minded Children, and the Kentucky Military Institute. It is lighted with gas, and is supplied with spring-water brought into the town in iron pipes. Two newspapers are published here. In 1870, the population was 5396.

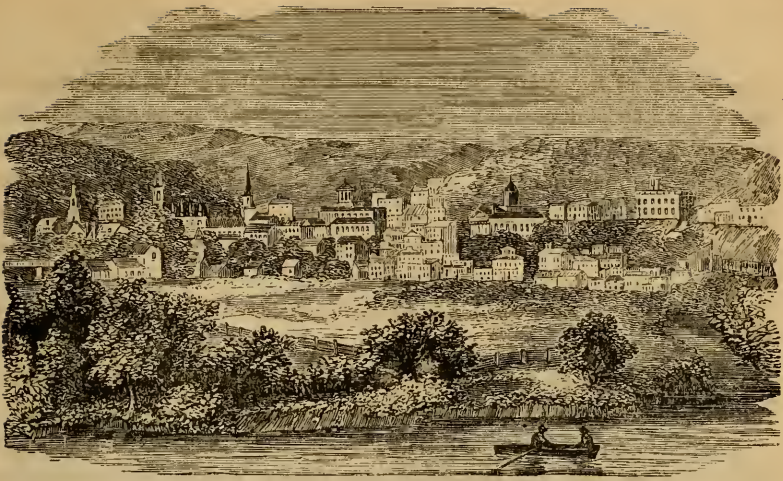
The Kentucky River is 100 yards wide at Frankfort, and is spanned by a chain bridge which connects the city with the suburb of South Frankfort. Steamers ascend to the city, which is the centre of an active trade. The river here flows through a deep channel of limestone rock, and is noted for its beautiful scenery. Railroads connect Frankfort with Louisville, Cincinnati, Nashville, and the other cities of the Union.

Frankfort was established by Act of the Legislature of Virginia; in 1786. It was made the capital of Kentucky in 1792. During the civil war, it was captured by the Confederate cavalry, on the 6th of September, 1862.

LOUISVILLE,

The largest city in the State, is situated in Jefferson county, on the south or left bank of the Ohio River, at the head of the falls, 51 miles west of Frankfort, 625 miles by the course of the river below Pittsburg, 394 miles above the mouth of the Ohio, and 590 miles west-by-south from Washington.

The city is built on a spacious sloping plain, 70 feet above low-



FRANKFORT.

water mark, and is laid out with regularity, the streets, which are from 60 to 120 feet in width, intersecting at right-angles in a direction with and from the river. Ten streets run parallel with the river, and thirty streets intersect them. Along the river shore are extensive wharves. The streets are generally well paved, and are in many instances shaded with trees. The general appearance of the city is bright and attractive, and here are to be seen some of the handsomest buildings in the West. The surrounding country is very beautiful.

The principal public buildings are the *City Hall*, the *Court House*, the *Custom House*, and the *Masonic Hall*, all of which are handsome structures.

The schools of Louisville have always been regarded as among the best in the country. Its public schools are perhaps the oldest in the West. There are a number of public schools for both sexes, and several flourishing private seminaries. The higher schools are the *University of Louisville*, and the *Medical Institute*. There is a *Law School* connected with the University. The *Mercantile Library* is a flourishing institution with a good collection of books; and the *Historical Society* possesses many interesting documents relating to the early history of the State.

The Benevolent Institutions are well managed. They are the *State Asylum for the Blind*, whose handsome buildings were erected partly by the contributions of the citizens; the *State Marine Asylum*, two



LOUISVILLE.

Orphan Asylums, and several societies for the relief of the poor and suffering.

The city contains about 40 churches, and about 12 newspaper and 4 magazine offices; and is lighted with gas, and supplied with water from the Ohio River. It possesses an efficient police force, and a steam fire engine service. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 100,753.

Louisville is connected with all parts of the country by railway. The Ohio is here crossed by a magnificent railway bridge, which gives the city unbroken communication with the East and West.

The navigation of the Ohio is interrupted at Louisville by the only falls which occur in the course of the stream. These falls are very picturesque in appearance. In high stages of the water, they entirely disappear, and steamboats pass over them; but when the water is low, the whole width of the river, which is scarcely less than a mile, has the appearance of a great many broken rivers of foam, making their way over the rocks. The river is divided by a fine island, which adds to the beauty of the scene. To overcome the obstruction caused

by the falls, a canal was cut around them, in 1833. It is $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, 50 feet wide, 10 feet deep, with a total lockage of 22 feet. It was cut through the solid limestone rock, and cost \$750,000. The city carries on a heavy river trade, both above and below the falls. Its wharves are at all times thronged with steamers and other river craft, carrying to and fro a merchandise inferior only to that coming and going from Pittsburg and Cincinnati. The principal exports are tobacco, bagging, rope, cordage, spirits, pork, flax, hemp, live stock, and machinery. The value of the commerce of the city is estimated at from \$80,000,000 to \$100,000,000 per annum. A large number of steamers engaged in the river trade are owned in the city.

The city is also largely engaged in manufacturing enterprises. It has a number of machine shops and founderies; several large steam bagging factories, rope walks, cotton and woollen factories, flouring mills, tobacco factories, distilleries, breweries, and agricultural implement factories.

MISCELLANY.

ADVENTURES OF DANIEL BOONE.

WRITTEN BY HIMSELF.

It was on the 1st of May, 1769, that I resigned my domestic happiness, and left my family and peaceable habitation on the Yad'kin River, in North Carolina, to wander through the wilderness of America, in quest of the country of Kentucky, in company with John Finley, John Stuart, Joseph Holden, James Monay, and William Cool.

On the 7th of June, after travelling in a western direction, we found ourselves on Red River, where John Finley had formerly been trading with the Indians, and from the top of an eminence saw with pleasure the beautiful level of Kentucky. For some time we had experienced the most uncomfortable weather. We now encamped, made a shelter to defend us from the inclement season, and began to hunt, and reconnoitre the country. We found abundance of wild beasts in this vast forest. The buffaloes were more numerous than cattle in the settlements, browsing on the leaves of the cane, or cropping the herbage on these extensive plains. We saw hundreds in a drove, and the numbers about the salt-springs were amazing. In this forest, the habitation of beasts of every American kind, we hunted with great success until December.

On the 22d of December, John Stuart and I had a pleasing ramble; but fortune changed the day at the close of it. We passed through a great forest, in which stood myriads of trees, some gay with blossoms, others rich with fruits. Nature was here a series of wonders and a fund of delight. Here she displayed her ingenuity and industry in a variety of flowers and fruits, beautifully colored, elegantly shaped, and charmingly flavored; and we were favored with numberless animals presenting themselves perpetually to our view. In the decline of the day, near Kentucky River, as we ascended the brow of a small hill, a number of

Indians rushed out of a canebrake and made us prisoners. The Indians plundered us, and kept us in confinement seven days. During this time, we discovered no uneasiness or desire to escape, which made them less suspicious; but in the dead of night, as we lay by a large fire in a thick canebrake, when sleep had locked up their senses, my situation not disposing me to rest, I gently awoke my companion. We seized this favorable opportunity and departed, directing our course toward the old camp, but found it plundered, and our company destroyed or dispersed.

About this time, my brother, with another adventurer, who came to explore the country shortly after us, were wandering through the forest, and accidentally came upon our camp. Notwithstanding our unfortunate circumstances, and our dangerous situation, surrounded with hostile savages, our meeting fortunately in the wilderness gave us the most sensible satisfaction.

Soon after this my companion in captivity, John Stuart, was killed by the savages, and the man who came with my brother, while on a private excursion, was soon after attacked and killed by the wolves. We were now in a dangerous and helpless situation, exposed daily to perils and death, among savages and wild beasts, not a white man in the country but ourselves.

Although many hundreds of miles from our families, in the howling wilderness, we did not continue in a state of indolence, but hunted every day, and prepared a little cottage to defend us from the winter. On the 1st of May, 1770, my brother returned home for a new recruit of horses and ammunition, leaving me alone, without bread, salt, or sugar, or even a horse or a dog. I passed a few days uncomfortably. The idea of a beloved wife and family, and their anxiety on my account, would have disposed me to melancholy if I had further indulged the thought.

One day I undertook a tour through the country, when the diversities and beauties of nature I met with in this charming season expelled every gloomy thought. Just at the close of the day, the gentle gales ceased; a profound calm ensued; not a breath shook the tremulous leaf. I had gained the summit of a commanding ridge, and, looking around with astonishing delight, beheld the ample plains and beauteous tracts below. On one hand, I surveyed the famous Ohio rolling in silent dignity, and marking the western boundary of Kentucky with inconceivable grandeur. At a vast distance, I beheld the mountains lift their venerable brows and penetrate the clouds. All things were still. I kindled a fire near a fountain of sweet water, and feasted on the loin of a buck which I had killed a few hours before. The shades of night soon overspread the hemisphere, and the earth seemed to gasp after the hovering moisture. At a distance I frequently heard the hideous yells of savages. My excursion had fatigued my body and amused my mind. I laid me down to sleep, and awoke not until the sun had chased away the night. I continued this tour, and in a few days explored a considerable part of the country, each day equally pleasing as the first; after which I returned to my old camp, which had not been disturbed in my absence. I could not confine my lodging to it, but often reposed in thick canebrakes to avoid the savages, who I believe frequently visited my camp, but, fortunately for me, in my absence. No populous city, with all its varieties of commerce and stately structures, could afford such pleasure to my mind as the beauties of nature I found in this country.

Until the 27th of July, I spent my time in an uninterrupted scene of sylvan pleasures, when my brother, to my great felicity, met me according to appoint-

ment at our old camp. Soon after we left the place, and proceeded to the Cumberland River, reconnoitering that part of the country, and giving names to the different rivers.

In March, 1771, I returned home to my family, being determined to bring them as soon as possible, at the risk of my life and fortune, to reside in Kentucky, which I esteemed a second Paradise.

On my return, I found my family in happy circumstances. I sold my farm on the Yadkin and what goods we could not carry with us, and, on the 25th of September, 1773, we took leave of our friends and proceeded on our journey to Kentucky, in company with five more families, and 40 men that joined us in Powell's Valley, which is 150 miles from the new settled parts of Kentucky. But this promising beginning was soon overcast with a cloud of adversity.

On the 10th of October, the rear of our company was attacked by a party of Indians, who killed 6, and wounded one man. Of these, my oldest son was one that fell in the action. Though we repulsed the enemy, yet this unhappy affair scattered our cattle and brought us into extreme difficulty. We returned 40 miles, to the settlement on Clench River. We had passed over two mountains, Powell and Walden's, and were approaching Cumberland Mountain, when this adverse fortune overtook us. These mountains are in the wilderness, in passing from the old settlement in Virginia to Kentucky; they range in a southwest and northeast direction; are of great length and breadth, and not far distant from each other. Over them nature has formed passes less difficult than might be expected from the view of such huge piles. The aspect of these cliffs is so wild and horrid that it is impossible to behold them without horror.

Until the 6th of June, 1774, I remained with my family on the Clench, when myself and another person were solicited by Governor Dunmore, of Virginia, to conduct a number of surveyors to the falls of Ohio. This was a tour of 800 miles, and took 62 days.

On my return, Governor Dunmore gave me the command of three garrisons during the campaign against the Shawnees. In March, 1775, at the solicitation of a number of gentlemen of North Carolina, I attended their treaty at Wataga with the Cherokee Indians, to purchase the lands on the south side of the Kentucky River. After this, I undertook to mark out a road in the best passage from the settlements through the wilderness to Kentucky.

Having collected a number of enterprising men, well armed, I soon began this work. We proceeded until we came within 15 miles of where Boonsborough now stands; where the Indians attacked us, and killed 2, and wounded 2 more of our party. This was on the 22d of March, 1775. Two days after, we were again attacked by them, when we had 2 more killed, and 3 wounded. After this, we proceeded on to Kentucky River without opposition.

On the 1st of April, we began to erect the fort of Boonsborough, at a salt lick 60 yards from the river, on the south side. On the 4th, the Indians killed one of our men. On the 14th of June, having completed the fort, I returned to my family on the Clench, and whom I soon afterward removed to the fort. My wife and daughter were supposed to be the first white women that ever stood on the banks of Kentucky River.

On the 24th of December, the Indians killed one of our men, and wounded another; and on the 15th of July, 1776, they took my daughter prisoner. I immediately pursued them with 8 men, and on the 16th overtook and engaged them. I killed 2 of them and recovered my daughter.

The Indians, having divided themselves into several parties, attacked in one day all our infant settlements and forts, doing a great deal of damage. The husbandmen were ambushed and unexpectedly attacked while toiling in the field. They continued this kind of warfare until the 15th of April, 1777, when nearly 100 of them attacked the village of Boonsborough, and killed a number of its inhabitants. On the 16th, Colonel Logan's fort was attacked by 200 Indians. There were only 13 men in the fort, of whom the enemy killed 2, and wounded one.

On the 20th of August, Colonel Bowman arrived with 100 men from Virginia, with which additional force we had almost daily skirmishes with the Indians, who began now to learn the superiority of the "long knife," as they termed the Virginians; being out-generalled in almost every action. Our affairs began now to wear a better aspect; the Indians no longer daring to face us in open field, but sought private opportunities to destroy us.

On the 7th of February, 1778, while on a hunting excursion alone, I met a party of 102 Indians and 2 Frenchmen, marching to attack Boonsborough. They pursued and took me prisoner, and conveyed me to Old Chilicothe, the principal Indian town on Little Miami, where we arrived on the 18th of February, after an uncomfortable journey. On the 10th of March, I was conducted to Detroit, and while there was treated with great humanity by Governor Hamilton, the British commander at that port, and Intendant for Indian Affairs.

The Indians had such an affection for me, that they refused £100 sterling, offered them by the Governor, if they would consent to leave me with him, that he might be enabled to liberate me on my parole. Several English gentlemen, then at Detroit, sensible of my adverse fortune, and touched with sympathy, generously offered to supply my wants, which I declined with many thanks, adding that I never expected it would be in my power to recompense such unmerited generosity.

On the 10th of April, the Indians returned with me to Old Chilicothe, where we arrived on the 25th. This was a long and fatiguing march, although through an exceeding fertile country, remarkable for springs and streams of water. At Chilicothe I spent my time as comfortably as I could expect; was adopted, according to their custom, into a family where I became a son, and had a great share in the affection of my new parents, brothers, sisters, and friends. I was exceedingly familiar and friendly with them, always appearing as cheerful and contented as possible, and they put great confidence in me. I often went a hunting with them, and frequently gained the applause for my activity at our shooting matches. I was careful not to exceed many of them in shooting, for no people are more envious than they in this sport. I could observe in their countenances and gestures the greatest expressions of joy when they exceeded me, and when the reverse happened, of envy. The Shawnee king took great notice of me, and treated me with profound respect, and entire friendship, often intrusting me to hunt at my liberty. I frequently returned with the spoils of the woods, and as often presented some of what I had taken to him, expressive of duty to my sovereign. My food and lodging were in common with them; not so good, indeed, as I could desire, but necessity made everything acceptable.

I now began to meditate an escape, and carefully avoided giving suspicion. I continued at Chilicothe until the 1st day of June, when I was taken to the salt springs on Scioto, and there employed ten days in the manufacturing of salt. During this time, I hunted with my Indian masters, and found the land, for a great extent about this river, to exceed the soil of Kentucky.

On my return to Chillicothe, 150 of the choicest Indian warriors were ready to march against Boonsborough. They were painted and armed in a frightful manner. This alarmed me, and I determined to escape.

On the 26th of June, before sunrise, I went off secretly, and reached Boonsborough on the 30th, a journey of 160 miles, during which I had only one meal. I found our fortress in a bad state, but we immediately repaired our flanks, gates, posterns, and formed double bastions, which we completed in ten days. One of my fellow-prisoners escaped after me, and brought advice, that on account of my flight, the Indians had put off their expedition for three weeks.

About the 1st of August, I set out with 19 men to surprise Point Creek-town, on Scioto, within 4 miles of which we fell in with 40 Indians going against Boonsborough. We attacked them, and they soon gave way, without any loss on our part.

The enemy had one killed and two wounded. We took three horses and all their baggage. The Indians having evacuated their town, and gone altogether against Boonsborough, we returned, passed them on the 6th, and on the 7th arrived safe at Boonsborough.

On the 9th, the Indian army, consisting of 444 men, under the command of Captain Duquesne, and 11 other Frenchmen, and their chiefs, arrived and summoned the fort to surrender. I requested two days' consideration, which was granted. During this we brought in through the posterns all the horses and other cattle we could collect.

On the 9th, in the evening, I informed their commander that we were determined to defend the fort while a man was living. They then proposed a treaty: they would withdraw. The treaty was held within 60 yards of the fort, as we suspected the savages. The articles were agreed to and signed, when the Indians told us, as it was their custom for two Indians to shake hands with every white man in the treaty, as an evidence of friendship. We agreed to this also. They immediately grappled us to take us prisoners, but we cleared ourselves of them, though surrounded by hundreds, and gained the fort safe, except one man, who was wounded by a heavy fire from the enemy.

The savages now began to undermine the fort, beginning at the watermark of Kentucky River, which is 60 yards from the fort; this we discovered by the water being made muddy by the clay. We countermined them by cutting a trench across their subterraneous passage. The enemy, discovering this by the clay we threw out of the fort, desisted. On the 20th of August, they raised the siege, during which we had 2 men killed, and 4 wounded. We lost a number of cattle. The loss of the enemy was 37 killed, and a much larger number wounded. We picked up 125 pounds of their bullets, beside what stuck in the logs of the fort.

In July, 1779, during my absence, Colonel Bowman, with 160 men, went against the Shawnees of Old Chillicothe. He arrived undiscovered. A battle ensued, which lasted until 10 in the morning, when Colonel Bowman retreated 30 miles. The Indians collected all their strength and pursued him, when another engagement ensued for two hours, not to Colonel Bowman's advantage. Colonel Harrod proposed to mount a number of horses, and break the enemy's line, who at this time fought with remarkable fury. This desperate measure had a happy effect, and the savages fled on all sides. In these two engagements we had 9 men killed and one wounded. Enemy's loss uncertain. Only two scalps were taken.

June 23d, 1780, 500 Indians and Canadians, under Colonel Bird, attacked Riddle and Martain's station, and the forks of Licking River, with 6 pieces of artillery. They took all the inhabitants captive, and killed one man and two women, loading the others with the heavy baggage, and such as failed in the journey were tomahawked.

The hostile disposition of the savages caused General Clarke, the commandant at the falls of Ohio, to march with his regiment and the armed force of the country against Peccaway, the principal town of the Shawnees, on a branch of the Great Miami, which he attacked with great success, took 70 scalps, and reduced the town to ashes, with the loss of 17 men.

About this time, I returned to Kentucky with my family; for, during my captivity, my wife, thinking me killed by the Indians, had transported my family and goods, on horses, through the wilderness, amidst great dangers, to her father's house in North Carolina.

On the 6th of October, 1780, soon after my settling again at Boonsborough, I went with my brother to the Blue Licks, and on our return he was shot by a party of Indians, who followed me by the scent of a dog, which I shot, and escaped. The severity of the winter caused great distress in Kentucky, the enemy, during the summer, having destroyed most of the corn. The inhabitants lived chiefly on buffalo's flesh.

In the spring of 1782, the Indians harassed us. In May, they ravished, killed, and scalped a woman and her two daughters, near Ashton's station, and took a negro prisoner. Captain Ashton pursued them with 25 men, and in an engagement, which lasted two hours, his party were obliged to retreat, having 8 killed, and 4 mortally wounded. Their brave commander fell in the action.

On August 18th, two boys were carried off from Major Hoy's station. Captain Holder pursued the enemy with 17 men, who were also defeated, with the loss of 7 killed, and 2 wounded. Our affairs became more and more alarming. The savages infested the country, and destroyed the whites as opportunity presented. In a field near Lexington, an Indian shot a man, and, running to scalp him, was himself shot from the fort, and fell dead upon the ground. All the Indian nations were now united against us.

On August 15th, 500 Indians and Canadians came against Briat's station, 5 miles from Lexington. They assaulted the fort, and killed all the cattle round it; but being repulsed, they retired the third day, having about 80 killed; their wounded uncertain. The garrison had 4 killed, and 9 wounded.

On August 10th, Colonels Todd and Trigg, Major Harland and myself, speedily collected 176 men, well armed, and pursued the savages. They had marched beyond the Blue Licks, to a remarkable bend of the main fork of the Licking River, about 43 miles from Lexington, where we overtook them on the 19th. The savages, observing us, gave way, and we, ignorant of their numbers, passed the river. When they saw our proceedings, having greatly the advantage in situation, they formed their line of battle from one end of the Licking to the other, about a mile from the Blue Licks. The engagement was close and warm for about 15 minutes, when we, being overpowered by numbers, were obliged to retreat, with a loss of 67 men, 7 of whom were taken prisoners. The brave and much-lamented Colonels Todd and Trigg, Major Harland, and my second son, were among the dead. We were afterward informed that the Indians, on numbering their dead, finding that they had 4 more killed than we, 4 of our people, they had taken, were given up to their young warriors, to be put to death after their barbarous manner.

On our retreat, we were met by Colonel Logan, who was hastening to join us with a number of well-armed men. This powerful assistance we wanted on the day of the battle. The enemy said, one more fire from us would have made them give way.

I cannot reflect upon this dreadful scene without great sorrow. A zeal for the defence of their country led these heroes to the scene of action, though with few men, to attack a powerful army of experienced warriors. When we gave way, they pursued us with the utmost eagerness, and in every quarter spread destruction. The river was difficult to cross, and many were killed in the fight, some just entering the river, some in the water, others after crossing, in ascending the cliffs. Some escaped on horseback, a few on foot; and being dispersed everywhere, in a few hours brought the melancholy news of this unfortunate battle to Lexington. Many widows were now made. The reader may guess what sorrow filled the hearts of the inhabitants, exceeding anything that I am able to describe. Being reinforced, we returned to bury the dead, and found their bodies strewed everywhere, cut and mangled in a dreadful manner. This mournful scene exhibited a horror almost unparalleled; some torn and eaten by wild beasts; those in the river by fishes; all in such a putrid condition that one could not be distinguished from another.

When General Clarke, at the falls of the Ohio, heard of our disaster, he ordered an expedition to pursue the savages. We overtook them within 2 miles of their town, and we should have obtained a great victory had not some of them met us when about 200 poles from their camp. The savages fled in the utmost disorder, and evacuated all their towns. We burned to ashes Old Chillicothe, Peccaway, New Chillicothe, and Willstown; entirely destroyed their corn and other fruits, and spread desolation through their country. We took 7 prisoners and 15 scalps, and lost only 4 men, 2 of whom were accidentally killed by ourselves. This campaign damped the enemy, yet they made secret incursions.

In October, a party attacked Crab Orchard, and one of them, being a good way before the others, boldly entered a house in which were only a woman and her children, and a negro man. The savage used no violence, but attempted to carry off the negro, who happily proved too strong for him, and threw him on the ground, and in the struggle the woman cut off his head with an axe, while her little daughter shut the door. The savages instantly came up, and applied their tomahawks to the door, when the mother putting an old rusty gun-barrel through the crevice, the savages immediately went off.

From that time till the happy return of peace between the United States and Great Britain, the Indians did us no mischief. Soon after this, the Indians desired peace.

Two darling sons and a brother I have lost by savage hands, which have also taken from me 40 valuable horses, and abundance of cattle. Many dark and sleepless nights have I spent, separated from the cheerful society of men, scorched by the summer's sun, and pinched by the winter's cold, an instrument ordained to settle the wilderness.

DANIEL BOONE.

Fayette county, Kentucky.

O H I O.

Area,	39,964 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	2,339,511
Population in 1870,	2,665,260

THE State of Ohio is situated between $38^{\circ} 32'$ and 42° N. latitude, and between $80^{\circ} 35'$ and $84^{\circ} 40'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Michigan and Lake Erie, on the east by Pennsylvania and West Virginia, on the south by West Virginia and Kentucky, and on the west by Indiana. Its extreme length from north to south is about 200 miles, and its width about 195 miles.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The centre of the State is occupied by a level country elevated about 1000 feet above the level of the sea, and the north central part of the State is crossed by a ridge of hills which separate the waters which flow into Lake Erie from those which flow into the Ohio River. A second slope interrupts the Ohio slope in the south central part of the State, and from this ridge the lower part of the State is a fine rugged country, which rises into a range of bold hills along the Ohio River. There are some prairie lands in the centre and northwest, and in the latter portion is a large tract of great fertility, called the Black Swamp, a considerable part of which is heavily timbered. Much of the country in the neighborhood of Lake Erie is marshy.

Lake Erie, already described, forms the greater part of the northern boundary, and receives the waters of the Maumee, Sandusky, Huron, and Cuyahoga. With the exception of the Maumee, which has its source in Indiana, all these streams rise in and flow through this State. The principal towns on the lake are Cleveland and Sandusky. San-

dusky Bay extends inland for about 20 miles. There are several good harbors on the lake. The Maumee is the only navigable river emptying into the lake. Steamers ascend it for 18 miles.

The *Ohio River* forms the greater part of the eastern, and the whole of the southern boundary, first touching the State about 50 miles below its head, and flows by it for a distance of about 470 miles. It is navigable the whole distance for large steamers for one-half of the year. Its principal tributaries, beginning on the east, are the *Muskingum*, *Scioto*, *Little Miami*, and *Miami* rivers. They vary in length from 110 to 200 miles. The Muskingum is navigable, by means of dams and locks, to Zanesville, a distance of 70 miles. At high water, boats ascend to Coshocton, 30 miles above Zanesville. The others are not navigable at all. They flow through a beautiful and highly productive country, and furnish an abundance of excellent water-power.

There are several islands belonging to this State in the southwest end of Lake Erie. The principal of these is Kelley's Island, which produces a fine quality of wine.

MINERALS.

Coal and iron are the principal minerals of the State. Salt springs are numerous, and marble and lime are found in large quantities. The first two are very abundant, and are of an excellent quality. In 1860, \$2,327,621 worth of pig-iron were produced in Ohio, and \$1,539,713 worth of coal. This made Ohio the second iron and coal producing State in the Union.

CLIMATE.

In the southern part of the State, the climate is mild. Snow does not lie long upon the ground. The climate of the northern part is rigorous, and is quite as severe as that of the Atlantic States of the same latitude. Severe droughts sometimes occur in Ohio, and cause considerable damage to the crops, but they are not of frequent occurrence.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The soil is fertile, there being very little land in the State that cannot be brought under profitable cultivation. Indeed, it is to the extremely favorable character of her soil that Ohio owes her present

proud position in the Union, having grown and prospered more rapidly than any other State. Sixty years ago, a vast forest covered almost the entire country between the Virginia line and Lake Erie. Now the same area is occupied by one of the most important States of the Union, possessing a population of nearly 3,000,000 souls, and ranking amongst the first members of the Confederacy in her wealth and resources. Wine raising is now a very important interest along the Ohio River.

In 1870, there were about 15,000,000 acres of improved lands in the State. In the same year, the agricultural statistics, as reported by the Secretary of State, were as follows :

Bushels of wheat,	26,499,729
“ Indian corn,	62,443,346
“ oats,	24,417,799
“ barley,	1,689,416
“ rye,	852,722
“ buckwheat,	223,766
“ Irish potatoes,	10,274,605
“ sweet potatoes,	119,746
“ flax seed,	611,046
“ apples,	15,518,685
“ peaches,	1,444,523
Tons of hay,	1,784,947
“ clover hay,	360,268
Pounds of tobacco,	15,943,116
“ flax,	18,723,377
“ butter,	38,783,607
“ cheese,	20,520,168
“ maple sugar,	3,302,714
“ wool,	19,292,858
“ grapes,	3,794,899
Gallons of wine,	155,535
“ sorghum molasses,	1,777,100
Number of horses,	704,664
“ mules,	22,057
“ sheep,	5,052,028
“ swine,	1,720,113
“ cattle,	1,521,421

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

This State possesses little foreign commerce, but its river and lake trade is immense, and is estimated at over \$150,000,000 annually. The river trade is the more important part of this. The number of steamers entering and clearing from Cincinnati is about 4000 each way annually.

The manufactures of this State, though still in their infancy, are growing in importance. In 1870, Ohio contained 22,773 establishments devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts. They employed a capital of \$141,923,964, and 137,202 hands, consuming raw material worth \$157,131,697, and yielding an annual product of \$269,713,610, making this the fourth State in the Union in respect to the value of goods produced. The principal products were valued as follows :

Cotton goods,	\$781,835
Woollen goods,	3,187,815
Leather,	7,333,062
Rolled iron,	13,033,169
Steam engines and machinery,	11,324,489
Agricultural implements,	11,907,366
Sawed and planed lumber,	12,622,525
Flour,	31,692,210
Salt,	1773,492
Liquors,	13,085,697
Boots and shoes,	6,559,946
Furniture,	6,792,585

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In 1872, Ohio contained 3740 miles of completed railroads, constructed at a cost of \$135,332,000, ranking second in the list of States with respect to the total length of its roads, and fourth with respect to their cost. The State is a perfect network of railways, no town or village being more than a few miles from a railroad depot. Direct lines lead from all the points of importance to the principal cities of the Union. The energy and foresight displayed by the State in the construction of these roads have greatly added to its wealth and prosperity.

Ohio was the first Western State to engage in the construction of canals. In 1860, there were 956 miles of canal navigation in the State. In spite of the abundance of railroad transportation, the canals of Ohio still continue to occupy an important position in the commerce of the State.

EDUCATION.

Ohio is one of the most prominent States in the Union in respect to its educational system. Schools were established in this State soon after its first settlement, and in 1804, the *University of Ohio* was founded at Athens. In 1867, there were 26 colleges, with 4783

students; 43 female seminaries, with 4217 students; 65 academies and normal schools, with 6167 pupils; and 647 private schools, with 26,450 pupils. In 1870, there were 11,401 public schools, with 719,902 pupils. The State has a permanent school fund, amounting to \$3,334,500. The interest of this is applied to the schools, and the remainder of the sum needed for them each year made up by taxes, fines, licences, etc. In 1870, the amount expended on the schools was \$4,960,771.

The general supervision of the free school system of the State is vested in a Commissioner of Schools, who is elected by the people for three years. The cities, towns, and incorporated villages are controlled each by a local Board of Education chosen by the people thereof. A State Board of Examiners alone has power to grant certificates of competency to teachers. These certificates, unless revoked by the Board, are good for the lifetime of the holder.

In 1870, the State contained 17,790 libraries, with 3,687,383 volumes. Of these 4374 were private libraries.

In the same year there were 271 political, 38 religious, and 86 miscellaneous newspapers and periodicals published in Ohio, making a total of 395. Of these 26 were daily, 3 semi-weekly, 8 tri-weekly, 299 weekly, 47 monthly, and 3 annual. They had an annual aggregate circulation of 98,548,814 copies.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The public institutions are under the supervision of a Board of State Charities.

The Penitentiary is located at Columbus. It is one of the best institutions of its kind in the Union, and is provided with handsome and commodious buildings. There is a school attached to the prison, in which the convicts are taught the rudiments of a plain education. The proceeds of the labor of the prisoners more than supports the institution, rendering it inexpensive to the State. In 1866, there were 860 convicts confined here.

The Ohio Reform School is located in Fairfield county, six miles south of Lancaster. It is provided with ample buildings, and a farm of 1170 acres. It is considered one of the most perfect establishments in the Union. In 1870, it contained 335 boys.

The Institution for the Education of the Blind, and the *Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb*, are located at Columbus.

In November, 1870, the former contained 119 pupils, and the latter 312 pupils.

There are three Lunatic Asylums in the State; the *Central Ohio Asylum*, at Columbus; the *Northern Ohio Asylum*, at Newburgh; and the *Southern Ohio Asylum*, at Dayton. The first was destroyed by fire on the 17th of November, 1868, and six of the patients perished in the flames. The remaining institutions, in 1870, contained 878 patients. In the same year there were in the county infirmaries and jails 1176 insane persons. *The Asylum for Idiots* contains 170 patients.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, there were 6284 churches in Ohio, and the value of church property was \$25,554,725.

FINANCES.

In November, 1874, the State debt amounted to \$7,988,205. During the year 1874, the receipts of the Treasury were \$5,894,745, and the expenditures \$5,211,934.

In the same year there were 139 National banks, with a capital of \$22,573,881, doing business in the State.

GOVERNMENT.

Every white male citizen of the United States, 21 years old, who has resided in the State one year, is entitled to vote. Persons in the military or naval service of the United States, idiots, and insane persons are excluded from the ballot.

The Government is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Auditor, Comptroller, and Attorney-General, and a Legislature, consisting of a Senate and a House of Representatives, all chosen by the people. The Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Treasurer, Secretary of State, and Attorney-General, and members of the Legislature are elected for two years. The Comptroller and Auditor are elected for four years. There is also a Board of Public Works, consisting of 3 members, elected for 3 years, one member retiring each year.

The courts of the State are the Supreme Court, consisting of five judges, elected by the people, the judge with the shortest term being the Chief Justice, the Courts of Common Pleas, District Courts, and Probate Courts in each county.

The seat of Government is established at Columbus.

The State is divided into 88 counties.

HISTORY.

The territory now embraced in the State of Ohio was first settled by the English, who, in 1749, built a trading-post upon the Great Miami River. Previous to this, the French had explored the territory, and had established a trading-post on the lower Ohio, at a point within the present limits of the State of Illinois. They were jealous of the establishment of the English post on the Miami, and incited the Indians to join in an attack upon it. They destroyed it in 1752, after a severe fight, and carried the traders into captivity in Canada. For some years the territory was in dispute, between the French and English. The Ohio Company claimed the right, under the charter, which they held from the English king, to establish trading-posts along the Ohio, and the French were very active in their efforts to put a stop to the advances of their English rivals. It was this quarrel which first brought Washington forward as a military leader. The territory was inhabited by Indian tribes, who were friendly to the French, and hostile to the English. They made frequent incursions across the Ohio against the settlements of the whites in Virginia, and were in their turn frequently attacked in their own homes by the English. During the Revolution, they were the allies of the British, and waged a bitter warfare upon the western settlements of the Americans. This gave rise to several memorable campaigns by the American forces west of the Ohio, in which the savages were severely punished.

After the close of the Revolutionary War, several of the States became involved in disputes as to the right of soil in this territory, which were only settled by the cession of all the State claims to the United States. Virginia, in ceding her claims, reserved nearly four millions of acres, near the falls of the Ohio, as bounty lands for her State troops, and Connecticut reserved a similar tract, near Lake Erie, which was sold to actual settlers. The sales of these lands laid the foundation of the school fund of Connecticut.

In 1788, the town of Marietta was founded by the New England Ohio Company, who purchased the lands on which they located their emigrants, from the United States Board of Treasury. In 1791, the town of Gallipolis was settled by 168 French emigrants. Other set-

tlers now came out, and the territory commenced to assume the character of a permanent settlement.

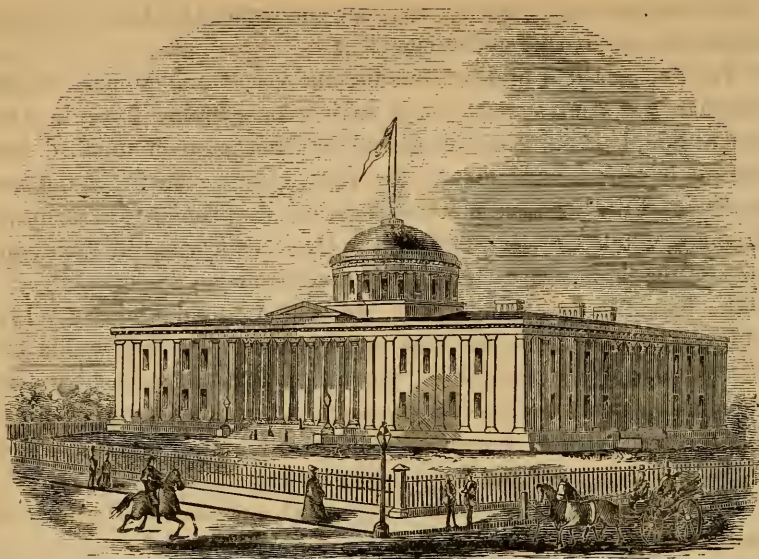
The Indians had by this time become very troublesome. General Harmar was sent against them with a considerable force, in 1790, but, although he inflicted considerable damage upon them, did not succeed in intimidating them. In 1791, General St. Clair, the Governor of the Territory, marched against the Indian towns on the Maumee, with a force of 3000 men. He was surprised by the savages on his march, and his whole army routed, after a desperate struggle, with a loss of more than 600 men. In 1794, General Anthony Wayne, of Revolutionary fame, was sent into the Indian country with a force of 3500 men. On the 20th of August, he inflicted a crushing defeat upon them at the falls of the Maumee. After this he ravaged their country, and pressed them so hard that they were glad to sue for peace, and for some years the territory was free from hostilities.

By this time Cincinnati had been settled, and the country along the southwestern shore of Lake Erie was beginning to attract emigrants. The Miami country was thickly populated, and the shores of the Ohio were beginning to be dotted with farms.

In 1799, the first Territorial Legislature assembled. Laws were passed confirming all that had been done by the Governor, and providing for the future security of the Territory. William Henry Harrison, then Secretary of the Territory, was chosen a delegate to Congress. Measures were begun and vigorously prosecuted, during the next two years, for the purpose of securing the admission of the Territory into the Union. These efforts were crowned with success. Early in 1802, a Convention met at Chillicothe, and adopted a State Constitution, which was accepted by Congress, and on the 30th of April, 1802, Ohio was admitted into the Union as a sovereign State.

In 1810, war broke out with the Indians, who, under the leadership of the famous chief Tecumseh, began a series of bloody outrages upon the whites. General Harrison, then Governor of the Territory of Indiana, marched against them and defeated them in the battle of Tippecanoe, in 1811. During the second war with England, the western frontiers suffered greatly from the British and Indians. Ohio bore her full share in the struggle, and her sons were amongst the first to volunteer for service against the common foe.

In 1816, the seat of Government was transferred from Chillicothe to Columbus, and, in 1817, the first steps were taken by the State for the construction of the canals which have added so much to her wealth.



STATE CAPITOL, AT COLUMBUS.

After the treaty of 1815, the State grew with unparalleled rapidity. We have already shown the condition of Ohio at present, and can add nothing to the simple statement that this great and flourishing commonwealth but little more than half a century ago was "a howling wilderness."

During the Rebellion this state contributed 317,133 men to the service of the United States.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the principal cities and towns of Ohio are, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Dayton, Toledo City, Zanesville, Sandusky, Chillicothe, Hamilton, Springfield, Portsmouth, Steubenville, Brooklyn, Newark, Xenia, Piqua, Mansfield, Circleville, Marietta, Lancaster City, Mount Vernon, and Canton.

COLUMBUS,

The capital and fourth city of the State, is situated in Franklin county, on the east bank of the Scioto River, 90 miles from its mouth, 120 miles northeast of Cincinnati, and 350 miles northwest of Washington. Latitude $39^{\circ} 57' N.$; longitude $83^{\circ} 3' W.$

The land on which the city is built rises gradually from the river, and the streets are laid out at right-angles. Broad street extends from the river along the National Road to the east of the city, and is 120 feet wide; and High street, 100 feet wide, crosses Broad at right-angles. This is the principal business street. At the intersection of the two thoroughfares is a handsome public square of 10 acres. The streets are shaded with trees, and are well paved. Street railways connect the various points of the corporate limits. The city is well built, and many of the buildings are handsome and spacious.

The *State Capitol* stands in the centre of the public square. It is a splendid edifice, 304 feet long by 184 feet wide. It is built of a fine white limestone resembling marble. The interior decorations are very fine. The *State Penitentiary* is located immediately upon the bank of the river, and is built of Ohio marble. It is one of the most imposing structures in the State. The *State Institution for the Blind*, the *Ohio Lunatic Asylum*, and the *Deaf and Dumb Asylum*, are handsome buildings.

The city contains a number of public and private schools. The *Starling Medical College* is a flourishing institution. The Lutheran Church has a theological seminary here. There are about 26 churches and several newspaper offices in Columbus. The city is lighted with gas and is supplied with pure water. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. It is one of the principal railway centres of the State, and is the seat of a large and active trade with the surrounding country. In 1870, the population was 31,274.

In 1812, Columbus was selected as the site of the State capital. At this time it was a wilderness, but it grew rapidly from the first, but was still a small inland village when the State Government was removed to it in 1816. In 1820, it had 1400 inhabitants. The completion of the National Road to the city brought it into more direct communication with the rest of the country, and greatly accelerated its growth.

CINCINNATI,

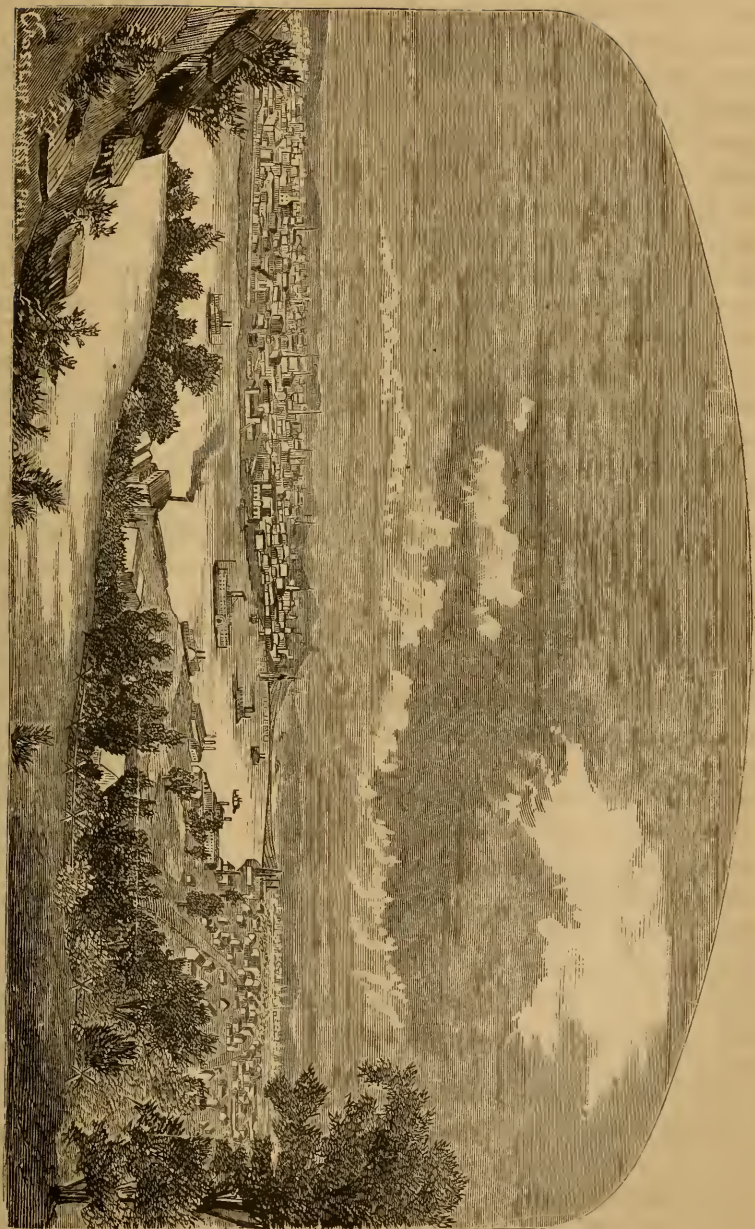
The metropolis of the State, is situated in Hamilton county, on the right or northern bank of the Ohio, opposite the mouth of the Licking River. It is 120 miles southwest of Columbus, 476 miles by water from Pittsburg, 529 miles from the mouth of the Ohio, 1520 miles from New Orleans, 280 miles southeast of Chicago, and 610 miles west of Washington. It is the eighth city in respect of population in the United States, and the third city in the West.

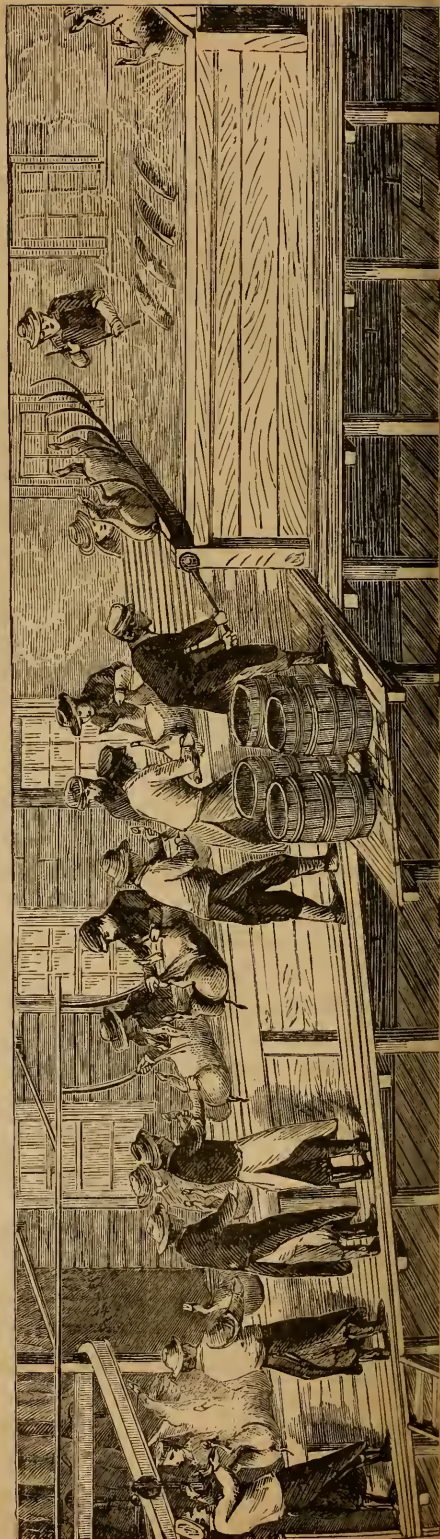
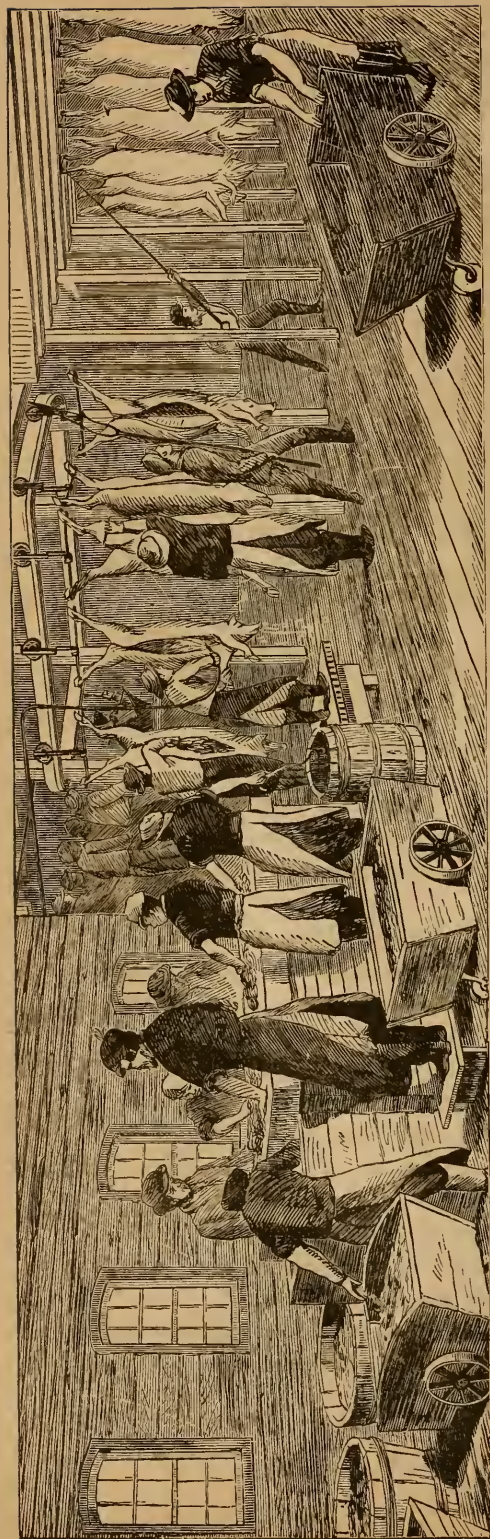
The city is beautifully located. It is in the centre of a lovely valley, surrounded by hills. It occupies the whole of the first and second planes above the Ohio River, and extends over the greater part of the third, or still higher elevations of Mount Adams, Mount Auburn, Mount Washington, etc. The first of these planes or tables, called "the bottom," is at an elevation of 50 feet above low-water mark; the second, called "the hill," about 60 feet higher, and is densely built upon, being the thickest settled portion of the city. Above this are the hills of Mount Auburn, etc., 200 feet higher. Viewed from one of these last hills, the city appears to occupy the centre of an immense basin, the view being in every direction terminated by swelling hills. The grade of these planes or terraces has for years been changing to conform to the general improvement of the city, and now affords the regular and facile ascent required by heavy draughts, as well as to permit the safe drainage of water from the upper terraces of the city.

The city is regularly laid out, the streets crossing each other at right-angles. They are generally about 66 feet in width; are well graded and paved, and are in many cases lined with beautiful shade trees. Those running east and west are denominated Water, Front, Columbia, Pearl, Third, Fourth, etc.; while those running north and south are named Broadway, Sycamore, Main, Walnut, Western Row, etc. Main street extends from the steamboat landing on the river northwardly to the northern bound of the second plane. The steamboat landing covers an open area of about 10 acres, with a frontage of 1000 feet. The shore is paved from low-water mark, and is provided with wharfboats or floating wharves, which rise and fall with the river; in the height of which there is a great variation, the mean annual range from high to low water being about 50 feet. Pearl street, parallel with the river, is the great jobbing mart. Fourth street is the "Fifth Avenue" of the town, a long, wide, elegant, fashionable promenade upon the crown of the First Terrace, following the course of the river. Fifth street contains the markets, and displays a scene of busy life through an extent of three or four miles.

Cincinnati is one of the best built cities in the country, and in its business portions especially will compare favorably with any American city. The improvement in this respect has been very marked during the last ten years. Many handsome residences lie within the city limits, and in the suburbs. The suburb of Clifton is one of the

CINCINNATI.





SLAUGHTERING HOOS.



VIEW ON FOURTH STREET, CINCINNATI.

handsomest villages in the Union. As in all western cities, however, the buildings soon become tarnished and blackened by the coal smoke, the coal burned here being very soft, and throwing off a dense, black smoke.

The public buildings give evidence of the rapid growth in wealth and importance of the city. The material generally employed in the best buildings is a fine freestone or sandstone, though white limestone is used to some extent. The *Court House* is a handsome edifice of white limestone, resembling marble. It cost \$500,000. The *City Hall*, the *Custom House*, the *Melodeon Hall*, *Mozart Hall*, and the *Masonic Hall*, are the other prominent structures. The colleges, churches, and benevolent establishments of the city are among its principal ornaments.

The schools are numerous, and are of a high character. There are a number of flourishing private schools and seminaries, and about 22 public schools, including two high schools in operation. The *College of St. Xavier*, the *Lane Theological Seminary* (Presbyterian), the *Fairmount Theological Seminary*, the *Wesleyan Female College*,

and the *Woodward* and *Eclectic Medical Colleges* are the principal institutions of the higher class.

The Benevolent Institutions are, the *Lunatic Asylum*, the *Commercial Hospital*, the *Cincinnati, St. Peter's, St. Aloysius*, and *West German Protestant Orphan Asylums*, the *Widow's Home*, the *Asylum for Indigent Females*, the *House of Refuge*, the *Hotel for Invalids*, the *Longview Asylum*, and the *Alms-house*. They are among the best arranged and most efficient institutions in the country.

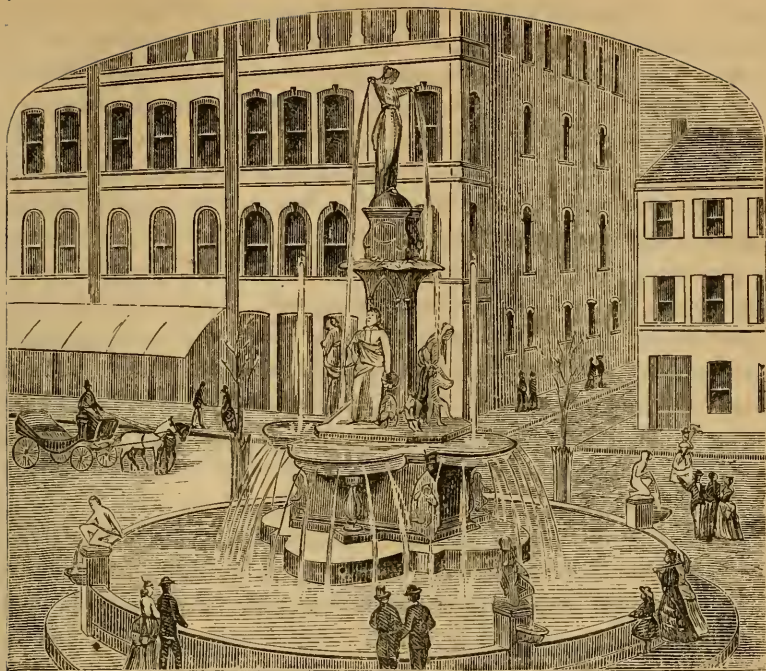
There are 9 public libraries in Cincinnati, two of which are German. The *Cincinnati Observatory* is located on Mount Adams, and forms a conspicuous object in any view of the city. It was built by the voluntary contributions of the citizens, the grounds being the gift of the late Nicholas Longworth. Under the management of the late Professor Mitchell it was raised to a high degree of excellence and usefulness.

The city contains 4 first-class hotels, about 110 churches, 4 theatres, about 56 newspapers and periodicals, 8 of which are daily, and several large publishing houses. It is lighted with gas, and supplied with pure water from the Ohio River. Street railways connect its various portions, and it possesses an efficient police force, a police and fire-alarm telegraph, and a steam fire department. This city built the first steam fire-engine ever used in America. The city is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870 the population was 216,239.

The Ohio is crossed at Cincinnati by a magnificent suspension bridge, uniting Cincinnati with Covington, Kentucky, begun in 1856, and completed in 1867. The entire length of the bridge is 2252 feet; the distance between the towers 1057 feet; height of the towers 230 feet; elevation of the floor at the middle 100 feet above low-water mark. The entire cost of the bridge was over \$1,500,000. It is traversed by a street railway, connecting Cincinnati and Covington. It is an imposing and massive structure, and a great ornament to the city.

There are 10 cemeteries in the vicinity, the principal of which is the Spring Grove Cemetery, a very beautiful "city of the dead."

Besides its river connections, Cincinnati has direct communication by railway with all parts of the State and Union. The *Miami Canal* connects it with Lake Erie, furnishing also excellent water-power for manufacturing purposes. Nine lines of railway enter the city, and through trains run from Cincinnati to all important points east and west.



THE TYLER DAVIDSON FOUNTAIN.

The river trade of Cincinnati is enormous, and is on the increase in spite of the activity of the various railway lines. During the year ending August 31, 1864, 435 steamboats and barges were engaged in this trade, or about 121 more than were employed in 1854. In the same year the arrivals of steamers numbered 2936, though the trade with the Lower Mississippi and New Orleans was destroyed by the war. Since the close of the war, and the opening of the Mississippi trade, the city has resumed its full share in this source of wealth.

Cincinnati ranks next to Chicago as a pork market of the Republic. An English writer, who visited Cincinnati a few years ago, humorously says of this branch of its industry :

“The great business of Cincinnati is hog killing now, as it used to be in the old days of which I have so often heard. It seems to be an established fact that in this portion of the world the porcine genus are all hogs. One never hears of a pig. With us a trade in hogs and pigs is subject to some little contumely. There is a feeling, which has perhaps never been expressed in words, but which certainly exists, that these animals are not so honorable in their bearings as sheep

and oxen. It is a prejudice which by no means exists in Cincinnati. There hog killing and salting and packing is very honorable, and the great men in the trade are the merchant princes of the city. I went to see the performance, feeling it to be a duty to inspect everywhere that which I found to be of most importance; but I will not describe it. There were a crowd of men operating, and I was told that the point of honor was to 'put through' a hog a minute. It must be understood that the animal enters upon the ceremony alive, and comes out in that cleanly, disemboweled guise in which it may sometimes be seen hanging up previous to the operation of the pork butcher's knife. To one special man was appointed a performance which seemed to be specially disagreeable, so that he appeared despicable in my eyes; but when on inquiry I learned that he earned five dollars (or a pound sterling) a day, my judgment as to his position was reversed. And, after all, what matters the ugly nature of such an occupation when a man is used to it?"

Upwards of 40 houses are engaged in this trade. About 700,000 hogs are annually killed and packed here. The value of the annual product of these houses in pork and lard is estimated at about \$8,000,000.

The city is largely engaged in manufactures. There are numerous iron and brass foundries, machine shops, flouring mills, manufactories of furniture, of lard and stearine oil, and of candles, distilleries, and wine factories. Considerable quantities of clothing, tobacco, and wagons are also made here. The hills of the Ohio above and below the city are lined with extensive vineyards, which produce large quantities of wine, which finds a market in the city. The vineyard and wine cellars of the late Mr. Longworth are well known throughout the country.

In 1864, the total exports of the city amounted to \$239,079-825; and the imports to \$389,790,537. The principal articles of export were valued as follows: merchandise, \$85,973,400; cotton, \$34,973,840; tobacco, \$22,286,485; whiskey, \$10,520,500; horses, \$8,523,847; sugar, \$6,790,054; oil, \$5,610,580; candles, \$3,043,768; flour, \$2,556,242; hemp, \$2,363,760; and furniture, \$2,154,075.

The cities of Covington and Newport lie on the Kentucky shore, immediately opposite Cincinnati.

Cincinnati was first settled on the 26th of December, 1788, by a party of men under Matthias Denman and Robert Paterson, sent out to improve a portion of the purchase made by the Hon. John Cleves

Symmes. This purchase embraced a tract of 311,682 acres, lying between the Great and Little Miami rivers, and extending along the Ohio River for a distance of 37 miles. This party landed opposite the mouth of the Licking River, and laid out a village called Losantiville, a name shortly abandoned for that of Cincinnati. In February, 1789, Judge Symmes himself arrived with another party, and, landing at North Bend, laid out what was designed to be a large city, to which they gave the name of Symmes. This site is now marked by the village of Cleves. In a short while a detachment of United States troops was sent to the Bend to protect the settlers there. Fort Washington had been built at Cincinnati by this time, however, and the troops were removed thither soon after their arrival at the Bend, and in a short while Symmes was compelled to yield its pretensions to Cincinnati. In 1790, the expedition of General Harrison against the Indians rendezvoused at and began its march from Fort Washington, which was also the starting point of the ill-fated expedition of St. Clair, in 1791. In 1792, the first (Presbyterian) church was erected, on what is now the corner of Main and Fourth streets. In 1793, the first newspaper, "The Sentinel of the Northwest Territory," was established. In January, 1794, a line of two keel boats, with bullet-proof covers and portholes, and provided with cannon and small arms, was established between Pittsburg and Cincinnati, each making a trip once in four weeks. During this time the town progressed very slowly. With the opening of the present century a change for the better set in, and its growth became marked and rapid. The introduction of steam navigation placed in its hands the enormous river trade, which it has since retained. In 1819, it was incorporated as a city. Its progress since its settlement is shown by the following table:

Year.	Population.
1795,	500
1800,	750
1810,	2,540
1820,	9,602
1830,	24,831
1840,	46,338
1850,	115,436
1860,	171,000
1870,	216,239

The city contains a large German population, the district mainly inhabited by them being known as "*Over the Rhine.*"

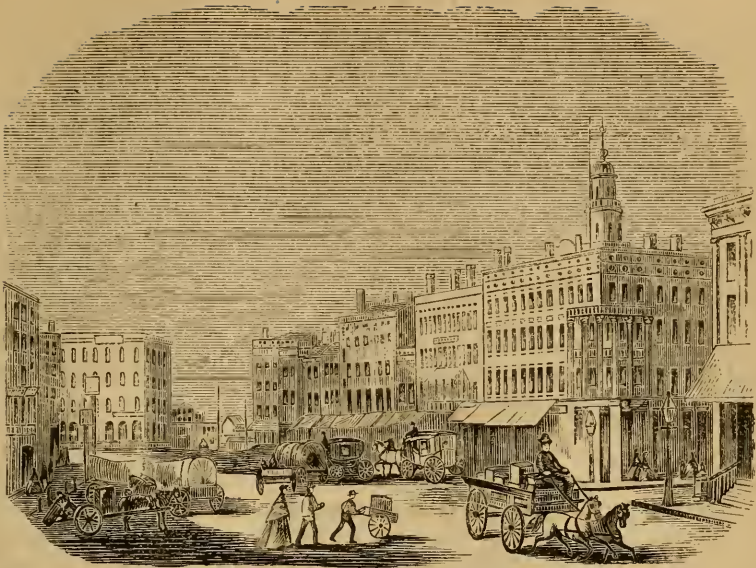
CLEVELAND,

The second city of the State, is situated in Cuyahoga county, on the southern shore of Lake Erie, at the mouth of Cuyahoga River, 135 miles east-northeast of Columbus, 255 miles northeast of Cincinnati, and 195 miles by water southwest of Buffalo.

The city is beautifully located on an elevated gravelly plain overlooking the lake, at an elevation of from 60 to 100 feet above it. The Cuyahoga River flows through the city, its tortuous course adding to the picturesque character of the scenery and affording an excellent harbor for several miles. From various points excellent views are obtained of the lake, which in summer seems a shoreless sea studded with the white sails of vessels, and in the winter resembles the Arctic Ocean, being a vast solitude of ice.

Cleveland is justly considered one of the handsomest American cities. It is regularly laid off, the streets, with a few exceptions, intersecting each other at right-angles. They are generally from 80 to 120 feet wide, and are so thickly shaded with maple trees—with the exception of the heavy business streets—that Cleveland has been named "The Forest City." In the centre of the city is a handsome public square of 10 acres, in which stands a marble statue of Commodore Perry, the hero of Lake Erie. The Nicholson or wooden pavement is used on all the principal streets. Superior street is the principal shopping thoroughfare, and contains the hotels. River and Merwin streets, on the east bank of the river, are the heavy business streets; and Euclid and Prospect streets are the favorite localities for residence. They are beautiful avenues, and are lined with handsome dwellings.

The principal public buildings are, the *United States Building*, containing the Custom House, Post Office, and United States Court; the *United States Marine Hospital*; the *County Court House*; the *City Police Court and Prison*, and the *County Jail*. These are built of stone. The public schools of Cleveland have long been noted for their excellence. There are about 74 in all, including 2 high schools. Besides these, there are a number of private schools and seminaries in the city. The principal establishments of the higher class are, the *Cleveland Medical College*, *Charity Hospital Medical College*, and the *Homœopathic Medical College*, all of which are flourishing institutions. The *Cleveland Library Association* possesses a fine library, and holds an annual course of lectures.



SUPERIOR STREET, CLEVELAND.

There are about 32 benevolent societies in the city. The principal establishments are, the *United States Marine Hospital*; the *Cleveland Orphan Asylum*; 3 Roman Catholic orphan asylums; the *Home of the Friendless* (Episcopal); the *City Infirmary*; the *House of Refuge*; the *Charity Hospital*.

Fourteen newspapers, 5 of which are daily, and 9 magazines, are published in Cleveland. The city contains about 43 churches, and 7 hotels. It is lighted with gas and is supplied with water, which is forced by steam from Lake Erie into an elevated reservoir, from which it is distributed through the city. It is provided with an efficient police force, a police and fire alarm telegraph, a steam fire-engine department, and a system of street railways. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 92,829.

The position of Cleveland on Lake Erie has placed it in possession of an important trade. It is next to Buffalo the most important port on the lake. The harbor is good, and has been greatly improved by the United States Government. During the season of navigation daily lines of passenger steamers ply between Cleveland and the Lake Superior ports, and about 20 lines of steam propellers maintain a busy trade with the principal towns on all the great lakes. There is direct communication between Cleveland and Liverpool, England, by

sailing vessels, *viâ* the lakes, the Welland Canal and the St. Lawrence. The lake trade is very large and valuable, and is increasing. The Ohio Canal connects the lake with the Ohio River at Portsmouth, and, by means of a branch at Beaver, seven lines of railway, one leading direct to the oil regions of Pennsylvania, connect the city with all parts of the Union. These have added greatly to its trade. The lake trade alone is estimated at about \$225,000,000 per annum.

Cleveland is largely engaged in ship-building. Many vessels have been constructed here for ocean service as well as for the lake trade. The manufactures of the city are growing rapidly. It is especially favored in this respect, owing to its proximity to the coal fields, its daily receipts from the mines, and its great facilities for distributing its products over the country.

MISCELLANY.

SIMON KENTON.

Simon Kenton was a Virginian by birth, and emigrated to the wilds of the West in the year 1771. He was born (according to a manuscript which he dictated to a gentleman of Kentucky, some years since,) in Fauquier county, on the 15th of May, 1755, of poor parents. His early life was passed principally on a farm. At the age of 16, having a quarrel with a rival in a love affair, he left his antagonist upon the ground for dead, and made quick steps for the wilderness. In the course of a few days, wandering to and fro, he arrived at a small settlement on Cheat Creek, one of the forks of the Monongahela, where he called himself Butler. Here, according to Mr. McClung, he attached himself to a small company headed by John Mahon and Jacob Greathouse, which was about starting farther west, on an exploring expedition. He was soon induced, however, by a young adventurer of the name of Yager, who had been taken by the western Indians when a child, and spent many years among them, to detach himself from the company, and go with him to a land which the Indians called Kan-tuc-kee, and which he represented as being a perfect elysium. Accompanied by another young man, named Strader, they set off for the backwoods paradise in high spirits: Kenton not doubting that he should find a country flowing with milk and honey, where he would have little to do but to eat, drink, and be merry. Such, however, was not his luck. They continued wandering through the wilderness for some weeks, without finding the "promised land," and then retraced their steps, and successively explored the land about Salt Lick, Little and Big Sandy, and Guyandotte. At length, being totally wearied out, they turned their attention entirely to hunting and trapping, and thus spent nearly two years. Being discovered by the Indians, and losing one of his companions (Strader), Kenton was compelled to abandon his trapping-waters, and hunting-grounds. After divers hardships, he succeeded in reaching the mouth of the Little Kanawha, with his remaining companion, where he found and attached himself to another exploring party. This, however, was attacked by the Indians, soon after commencing the descent of the Ohio, compelled to abandon its canoes, and strike diagonally through the woods for Greenbriar county. Its members suffered much

in accomplishing this journey, from fatigue, sickness, and famine; and on reaching the settlements separated.

Kenton's rival of the love affair had long since recovered from the castigation which he had given him. But of this the young hero had not heard. He therefore did not think proper to venture home; but, instead, built a canoe on the Monongahela, and once more sought the mouth of the Great Kanawha, where he hunted till the spring of 1774. This year, he descended the Ohio as far as the mouth of Big Bone Creek, and was engaged in various explorations till 1778, when he joined Daniel Boone in his expedition against the Indian town on Paint Creek. Immediately, on his return from this, he was dispatched by Colonel Bowman, with two companions, to make observations upon the Indian towns on Little Miami, against which the colonel meditated an expedition. He reached the towns in safety, and made the necessary surveys without being observed by the Indians; and the expedition might have terminated much to his credit, and been very useful to the settlers in Kentucky, had he not, before leaving the towns, stolen a number of the Indians' horses. The animals were missed early on the following morning, the trail of the marauders was discovered, and pursuit instantly commenced. Kenton and his companions soon heard cries in their rear, knew that they had been discovered, and saw the necessity of riding for their lives. They therefore dashed through the woods at a furious rate, with the hue and cry after them, until their course was suddenly interrupted by an impenetrable swamp. Here they, from necessity, paused for a few moments, and listened attentively. Hearing no sounds of pursuit, they resumed their course: and skirting the swamp for some distance, in the vain hope of crossing it, they dashed off in a straight line for the Ohio. They continued their furious speed for 48 hours, halting but once or twice for a few minutes to take some refreshment, and reached the Ohio in safety. The river was high and rough, and they found it impossible to urge the jaded horses over. Various efforts were made, but all failed. Kenton was never remarkable for prudence; and, on this occasion, his better reason seems to have deserted him entirely. By abandoning the animals, he might yet have escaped, though several hours had been lost in endeavoring to get them over. But this he could not make up his mind to do. He therefore called a council, when it was determined, as they felt satisfied they must be some 12 hours in advance of their pursuers, that they should conceal their horses in a neighboring ravine, and themselves take stations in an adjoining wood, in the hope that by sunset the high wind would abate, and the state of the river be such as to permit their crossing with the booty. At the hour waited for, however, the wind was higher, and the water rougher than ever. Still, as if completely infatuated, they remained in their dangerous position through the night. The next morning was mild; the Indians had not yet been heard in pursuit, and Kenton again urged the horses over. But, recollecting the difficulties of the preceding day, the affrighted animals could not now be induced to enter the water at all. Each of the three men therefore mounted a horse, abandoning the rest (they had stolen quite a drove), and started down the river, with the intention of keeping the Ohio and Indiana side till they should arrive opposite Louisville. But they were slow in making even this movement; and they had not ridden over 100 yards when they heard a loud halloo, proceeding apparently from the spot which they had just left. They were soon surrounded by the pursuers. One of Kenton's companions effected his escape, the other was killed. Kenton was made prisoner—"falling a victim," says Mr. McClung, "to his excessive love of horse-flesh."

After the Indians had scalped his dead companion, and kicked and cuffed Kenton to their hearts' content, they compelled him to lie down upon his back, and stretch out his arms to their full length. They then passed a stout stick at right angles across his breast, to each extremity of which his wrists were fastened by thongs of buffalo-hide. Stakes were next driven into the earth near his feet, to which they were fastened in like manner. A halter was then tied round his neck, and fastened to a sapling which grew near. And finally, a strong rope was passed under his body, and wound several times round his arms at the elbows—thus lashing them to the stick which lay across his breast, and to which his wrists were fastened, in a manner peculiarly painful. He could move neither feet, arms, nor head; and was kept in this position till the next morning. The Indians then, wishing to commence their return-journey, unpinioned Kenton, and lashed him by the feet to a wild, unbroken colt (one of the animals he had stolen from them), with his hands tied behind him.

In this manner he was driven into a captivity as cruel, singular, and remarkable in other respects, as any in the whole history of Indian warfare upon this continent. "A fatalist," says the author of the "Sketches of Western Adventure," "would recognize the hand of destiny in every stage of its progress. In the infatuation with which Kenton refused to adopt proper measures for his safety, while such were practicable; in the persevering obstinacy with which he remained on the Ohio shore until flight became useless; and afterward, in that remarkable succession of accidents, by which, without the least exertion on his part, he was so often at one hour tantalized with a prospect of safety, and the next plunged into the deepest despair. He was eight times exposed to the gauntlet—three times tied to the stake—and as often thought himself upon the eve of a terrible death. All the sentences passed upon him, whether of mercy or condemnation, seem to have been pronounced in one council only to be reversed in another. Every friend that Providence raised up in his favor, was immediately followed by some enemy, who unexpectedly interposed, and turned his short glimpse of sunshine into deeper darkness than ever. For three weeks he was constantly see-sawing between life and death; and during the whole time *he* was perfectly passive. No wisdom, or foresight, or exertion, could have saved him. Fortune fought his battle from first to last, and seemed determined to permit nothing else to interfere."

He was eventually liberated from the Indians, when about to be bound to the stake for the fourth time and burnt, by an Indian agent of the name of Drewyer, who was anxious to obtain intelligence for the British commander at Detroit, of the strength and condition of the settlements in Kentucky. He got nothing important out of Kenton; but in three weeks, Football of Fortune was sent to Detroit, from which place he effected his escape in about eight months, and returned to Kentucky. Fearless and active, he soon embarked in new enterprises; and was with George Rogers Clarke, in his celebrated expedition against Vincennes and Kaskaskia; with Edwards, in his abortive expedition to the Indian towns in 1785; and with Wayne, in his decisive campaign of 1794.

Simon Kenton, throughout the struggles of the pioneers, had the reputation of being a valuable scout, a hardy woodsman, and a brave Indian fighter; but, in reviewing his eventful career, he appears to have greatly lacked discretion, and to have evinced frequently a want of energy. In his after life he was much respected, and he continued to the last fond of regaling listeners with stories of the early times. A friend of ours, who some years ago made a visit to the

abode of the venerable patriarch, describes in the following terms his appearance at that time: "Kenton's form, even under the weight of 79 years, is striking, and must have been a model of manly strength and agility. His eye is blue, mild, and yet penetrating in its glance. The forehead projects very much at the eyebrows—which are well defined—and then recedes, and is neither very high nor very broad. His hair, which in active life was light, is now quite gray; his nose is straight; and his mouth, before he lost his teeth, must have been expressive and handsome. I observed that he had yet one tooth—which, in connection with his character and manner of conversation, was continually reminding me of Leatherstocking. The whole face is remarkably expressive, not of turbulence or excitement, but rather of rumination and self-possession. Simplicity, frankness, honesty, and a strict regard to truth, appeared to be the prominent traits of his character." In giving an answer to a question which my friend asked him, I was particularly struck with his truthfulness and simplicity. The question was, whether the account of his life, given in the "Sketches of Western Adventure," was true or not. "Well, I'll tell you," said he; "not true. The book says that when Blackfish, the Injun warrior, asked me, when they had taken me prisoner, if Colonel Boone sent me to steal their horses, I said, 'No, sir.'" Here he looked indignant and rose from his chair. "I tell you I never said 'sir' to an Injun in my life; I scarcely ever say it to a white man." Here Mrs. Kenton, who was engaged in some domestic occupation at the table, turned round and remarked, that when they were last in Kentucky, some one gave her the book to read to her husband; and that when she came to that part, he would not let her read any further. "And I tell you," continued he, "I was never tied to a stake in my life to be burned. They had me painted black when I saw Girty, but not tied to a stake."

We are inclined to think, notwithstanding this, that the statement in the "Sketches," of his being three times tied to the stake, is correct; for the author of that interesting work had before him a manuscript account of the pioneer's life, which had been dictated by Mr. Kenton to a gentleman of Kentucky, a number of years before, when he had no motive to exaggerate, and his memory was comparatively unimpaired. But he is now beyond the reach of earthly toil, or trouble, or suffering. His old age was as exemplary as his youth and manhood had been active and useful. And though his last years were clouded by poverty, and his eyes closed in a miserable cabin to the light of life, yet shall he occupy a bright page in our border history, and his name soon open to the light of fame.

INDIANA.

Area,	33,809 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	1,350,428
Population in 1870,	1,680,637

THE State of Indiana is situated between $37^{\circ} 50'$ and $41^{\circ} 50' N.$ latitude, and between (about) $84^{\circ} 50'$ and (about) $88^{\circ} W.$ longitude. It is bounded on the north by Michigan and Lake Michigan, on the east by Ohio and Kentucky, on the south by Kentucky, and on the west by Illinois. Its extreme length, from north to south, is about 280 miles, and its extreme width, from east to west, about 144 miles.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The Ohio River is bordered for the most part by a range of hills; and the country south of the White River is mostly rugged. A low ridge enters the State from Kentucky, and crosses the southern part in a northwestern direction. The White and Wabash rivers break through this ridge in a series of rapids. The rapids of the Ohio River are produced by the same cause. North of the White River, the country is either gently rolling or level. Fine prairies occupy the western counties, and the eastern part of the State is heavily timbered. Some swamp lands occupy several of the northwestern counties.

Lake Michigan, already described, washes the western portion of the northern part of the State. Michigan City is the principal town on the lake.

The Ohio River washes the entire southern shore of the State, and receives the waters of its principal stream, the Wabash. *The Wabash*

rises in the western part of the State of Ohio, and enters Indiana near the centre of the eastern boundary. It then flows northwest to Huntington, where it bends to the southwest, and flows in that direction across the State to the Illinois border, below Terre Haute. It then forms the boundary between Indiana and Illinois for about 100 miles, and empties into the Ohio River at the southwestern extremity of the former State. It is 550 miles long, and is navigable for 300 miles for steamboats, at high water. *The White River* is the principal branch of the Wabash. It is formed by two branches, called the East Fork and the West Fork. The West Fork, which may be regarded as the main stream, rises in the eastern part of the State, and is 300 miles long. It flows through the central part of Indiana, and is navigable, at high water, for 200 miles above the mouth of the White River. The East Fork is 250 miles long, and is navigable for flat-boats. The two branches unite near Kinderhook, in Davies county. The main stream is about 40 or 50 miles long. The general course of the White River and its branches is southwest. The Wabash is obstructed at low water by a ledge of rocks just above the mouth of the White River. The Maumee and its branches drain the northeastern counties, and the Kankakee, one of the sources of the Illinois, flows through the northwest. The Upper St. Joseph's of Michigan flows for 30 miles through this State, in the extreme northern part. The Tippecanoe and Mississinewa, flowing into the Wabash, the White Water and Blue River flowing into the Ohio, and the Flat Rock flowing into the White River, are the other streams of importance.

MINERALS.

The southwestern part of the State is rich in coal beds. It is estimated that they are capable of producing 50,000,000 bushels to the square mile. Iron, zinc, gypsum, marble, limestone, and sandstone, of an excellent building quality, and grindstones are found.

CLIMATE.

The climate is mild as a general rule, but liable to sudden and severe changes. The summers are warm, but the winters, though severe, are short, and except in the most northern counties deep snows are not usual.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The soil of the State is good, and has never been worked to its full capacity. The best and most fertile lands lie along the rivers. The State contains a great deal of excellent grazing land.

According to the Report of the Agricultural Bureau for 1869, there were in Indiana 8,242,183 acres of improved land. In the same year, the other returns were as follows :

Bushels of wheat,	20,600,000
“ Indian corn,	73,000,000
“ rye,	575,000
“ oats,	12,413,000
“ barley,	411,000
“ buckwheat,	303,000
“ potatoes,	4,750,000
Pounds of tobacco,	7,000,000
“ butter,	18,306,651
Tons of hay,	1,200,000
Number of horses,	890,340
“ asses and mules,	35,340
“ sheep,	1,011,120
“ milch cows,	390,450
“ swine,	3,580,120
“ young cattle,	744,850
Value of domestic animals,	\$50,855,539

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

This State has no foreign commerce, but has an active lake and river trade.

Manufactures do not yet occupy the position to which the cheapness of fuel and abundance of water-power in Indiana entitle them. The State is almost entirely agricultural at present, but there is good reason to believe that it will one day become a prominent manufacturing community. In 1870, the State contained 11,847 establishments devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts. They employed a capital of \$52,052,425, consumed raw material worth \$63,135,492, and returned an annual product of \$108,617,278.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In 1872, Indiana contained 3529 miles of completed railroads, constructed at a cost of over \$100,000,000. Nearly all the great lines between the far West and the East cross this State, which is one of the fore-

most in the country in the work of internal improvements. A perfect network of roads covers the State, and there is scarcely a county which is not crossed in some part by a railroad. Seven lines centre at the capital, and half a dozen cross the northern part of the State to Chicago. All the important points are thus connected with each other, and with all parts of the country. The roads of Indiana are amongst the best in the country.

There are 453 miles of canal navigation in the State.

EDUCATION.

Indiana is one of the first States in respect to the provision made for public education.

In 1870, there were 26 colleges in the State, the principal of which is the State University, at Bloomington, which is a part of the public school system, and furnishes education free. A State Normal school has been established at Terre Haute.

The educational system is under the general control of a Superintendent of Public Instruction, elected by the people for a term of two years. He reports the condition of the schools to the Legislature at the end of his term. A County Commissioner is in charge of the schools of each county, and in each city and township the schools are controlled by a Board of Trustees. An Examiner is appointed in each county by the Commissioner. It is the duty of this official to visit the schools and examine the teachers, under the direction of the Commissioner, and to hold a Teachers' Institute in his county at least once a year.

In 1870, the school fund amounted to over \$7,000,000. The number of public schools in the State was 8871, and the number of pupils was 446,076. There were also 202 private schools, with about 18,000 pupils.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

There are two State prisons in this State—the *State Prison, North*, at Michigan City, and the *State Prison, South*, at Jeffersonville. At the Jeffersonville prison, the labor of the convicts is let out to contractors, and the institution is self-sustaining. The State conducts the northern prison.

The *Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb* is at Indianapolis, and is a flourishing and excellent institution. The *Institute for the Education of the Blind*, and the *Hospital for the Insane*, are also at Indianapolis. They are well managed. In the Deaf and Dumb Asylum, shoe-

making and cabinet-making are taught the boys, while the girls are instructed in needle-work. Brush and broom making are carried on by the boys, and bead work of various kinds by the girls, at the Blind Asylum. In October, 1867, there were 169 deaf mutes in the first institution named above; 96 blind persons in the second; and in 1868, 313 lunatics in the third.

The Soldiers' and Seamen's Home is located in Rush county. It was established in this county in 1866, and will accommodate 100 patients.

A State Reform School is just being put in operation in Hendricks county.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, there were 3106 churches in Indiana, and the value of church property was \$11,942,227

LIBRARIES AND NEWSPAPERS.

In 1870, there were 5301 libraries in the State, containing 1,125,533 volumes.

In the same year the number of newspapers and magazines published in this State was as follows: daily, 20; semi-weekly, 1; weekly, 233; monthly, 28. Total, 293. Of these 240 were political, 9 religious, 16 literary, and 28 miscellaneous. They had an aggregate annual circulation of 26,964,894 copies.

FINANCES.

On the 31st of October, 1874, the State debt amounted to \$1,172,755. The receipts of the Treasury during the fiscal year ending October 31st, 1874, amounted to \$2,410,917, and the expenditures for the same period to \$1,544,216.

In 1868, there were 68 National banks doing business in the State, with a capital of \$12,867,000.

GOVERNMENT.

By the terms of the State Constitution, every male citizen of the United States, 21 years old, who has resided in the State six months, and every male of foreign birth, 21 years old, who has resided in the United States one year, and in the State six months, and has declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States, is entitled to vote at the elections.

The Government is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor,

Secretary of State, Auditor of State, Treasurer of State, and Attorney-General, and a Legislature, consisting of a Senate (of 50 members) and a House of Representatives (of 98 members), all elected by the people. The General election is held in October. The Governor and Lieutenant-Governor are chosen for four years, and the other officers and the Legislature for two years. The Legislature meets biennially in January.

The Courts of the State are the Supreme Court, Circuit Courts, and a Court of Common Pleas. The judges are elected by the people; those of the Supreme Court for seven years, those of the Circuit Courts for six years, and those of the Court of Common Pleas for four years. The Supreme Court consists of four judges.

The seat of Government is established at Indianapolis.

Indiana is divided into 92 counties.

HISTORY.

Originally a part of New France, Indiana was first explored by the French missionaries and traders. As early as 1700, Vincennes was a missionary station, and in 1716 it became a trading-post. It is believed that the first actual white settlers were French soldiers, who, by frequent intermarriages with the Indians, lost their habits of civilization, and became a degenerate community, remaining a distinct class for fully one hundred years.

The treaty of 1763, turned over to Great Britain all the French possessions east of the Mississippi. During the Revolution, the French settlers were bitterly hostile to the English, and in one instance gave such accurate information of the situation and condition of the British fort at Vincennes, that General Rogers Clark, of Virginia, was enabled to capture it. After the close of the Revolution, the territory east of the Mississippi became the property of the United States.

Soon after the settlement of Ohio, several military expeditions were sent into the present State of Indiana, which was then known as the Indian country. In 1790, General Harmar destroyed the Indian towns on the Maumee, which are supposed to have occupied the site of the present town of Fort Wayne, but was himself very badly handled by the savages. In May, 1791, an expedition from Kentucky, under General Charles Scott, laid waste the towns on the Wabash and Eel rivers, without losing a man; and in the following August, another

Kentucky expedition crossed into Indiana, and completed the work which General Scott had begun.

The Indians continued hostile after the treaty of 1795, owing to the efforts of Tecumseh, but a portion of them sold their lands to the United States for the benefit of the white settlers.

In 1802 and 1803, and again in 1807, unsuccessful efforts were made to introduce slavery into the Indiana territory in spite of the prohibition of the ordinance by which the territory had been ceded to the United States.

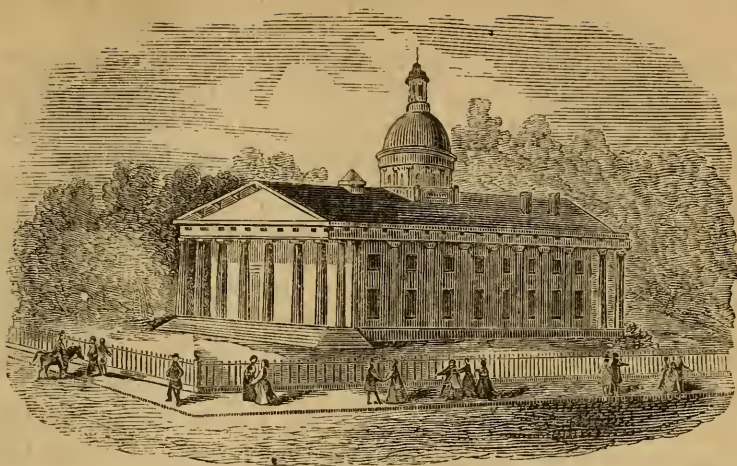
The Indians having become troublesome again, the Governor, General William Henry Harrison, summoned the people to take up arms against them. The savages were led by Tecumseh and his brother The Prophet, two able and determined chieftains. General Harrison marched into their country with a considerable force. On the 7th of November, 1811, he appeared with his army before Tippecanoe (*the Prophet's town*) on the Wabash, and demanded that the savages should restore all the property they had taken from the whites. A conference was held between the American commander and Tecumseh, in which it was agreed that hostilities should not begin until the next morning. Harrison, however, knew that the Indians would not scruple to disregard the truce, and bivouacked his army in order of battle. His suspicions were realized. Just before daylight Tecumseh made a furious attack upon the American camp, but, thanks to the wise precautions of Harrison, was repulsed, and his warriors routed with terrible loss. Harrison followed up his victory by devastating the Indian country. Soon after this the tribes sued for peace.

During the war of 1812 the Indians joined the British in their efforts against the Americans, but were terribly punished for so doing. Their warriors were slain and their country laid waste, and in the battle of the Thames their famous chieftain, Tecumseh, was killed.

In the year 1800 the region now included in the States of Illinois and Indiana was organized as the Territory of Indiana. In 1809 Illinois Territory was separated from Indiana.

On the 29th of June, 1816, a State Constitution was adopted by the people, in Convention, and on the 11th of December, of the same year, Indiana was admitted into the Union as a sovereign State.

The new State grew rapidly, and attracted settlers from all parts of the country. Emigrants from Europe also came over, and it entered upon that splendid career of wealth and prosperity which it is still pursuing.



STATE HOUSE AT INDIANAPOLIS.

During the late war Indiana furnished 195,147 troops to the service of the United States.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the principal cities and towns of the State are, New Albany, Evansville, Fort Wayne, Lafayette, Terre Haute, Madison, Richmond, Laporte, Jeffersonville, Logansport, and Michigan City.

INDIANAPOLIS,

The capital and largest city of the State, is situated in Marion county, on the west fork of White River, just below the mouth of Fall Creek, 109 miles northwest of Cincinnati, 200 miles southeast of Chicago, and 573 miles west by north of Washington. Latitude, $39^{\circ} 46' N.$; longitude, $86^{\circ} 5' W.$ It is located in an extensive plain, and lies in almost the exact centre of the State. The city is regularly laid out, and is well built. It is making rapid progress every year in the character of its edifices, both public and private, and is now noted as one of the handsomest and most attractive of the Western capitals. The streets are wide, and generally cross each other at right angles. Four of them, however, are diagonal, and converge to a circular area in the centre of the town. Washington street is the principal thoroughfare, and is 120 feet wide. The streets are well paved, are shaded with trees, and are traversed by lines of street railways. The

business portions boast many handsome and showy structures, and the private streets contain a large number of elegant residences.

The public buildings are a credit to the city and State. The *State House* is a noble edifice, built in imitation of the Parthenon, and surmounted by a dome. Its dimensions are 180 by 80 feet. The *Court House* and the *Union Depot* are the other prominent buildings.

The schools of the city are excellent and prosperous. The public schools deserve special commendation, and the private academies and seminaries are well conducted. The *Northwestern Christian University*, conducted by the Christian Church, the *Baptist Female College*, the *Indiana Female College*, and the *Indiana Medical College*, are located here. The *State* and *Mercantile Libraries* are the principal collections of books.

The Benevolent Institutions are, the *State Lunatic Asylum*, the *State Asylums for the Blind*, and *for the Deaf and Dumb*, and several local institutions for the relief of the poor and afflicted.

The city contains about 34 churches, and several newspaper offices, is lighted with gas, and is supplied with pure water. It is provided with an efficient police force, and a steam fire department, and is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870 the population was 48,244.

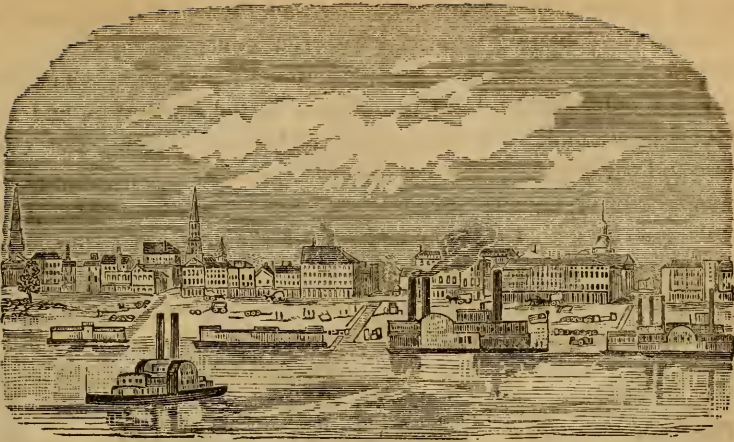
Eight railway lines centre at Indianapolis, and make it one of the most important railway points in America.

Manufactures are carried on to a limited extent, iron, machinery, paper, flour, and window sashes being the principal products.

Indianapolis is noted for its rapid growth. In 1820, when the site was selected for the capital of the State, it was covered with a dense forest. The first settlement was made in the spring of that year, and on the 1st of January, 1825, the State offices were removed from Corydon to this place. The State Capitol was finished in 1834.

EVANSVILLE,

In Vanderburgh county, on the northern bank of the Ohio, is the second city of the State, with respect to population. It is 200 miles above the mouth of the Ohio, 200 miles below Louisville, Ky., and 144 miles southwest of Indianapolis. The city lies on a high bank of the river, the ground sloping gradually from the first street to the edge of the water. It is well built, and presents a handsome appearance from the river. The principal streets are wide and well paved. The public buildings are, the *Court House*, the *Marine Hospital of the United States*, and the *State Bank*. The city is lighted with gas, and



EVANSVILLE.

is supplied with water from the Ohio. It contains about 30 churches, a number of public and private schools, about 4 newspaper offices, and several hotels. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870 the population was 21,830.

Evansville is one of the most important places in the State. It is the terminus of the Wabash and Erie Canal, which is 462 miles long, and the principal market of the famous Green River Valley of Kentucky. The annual exports of the city exceed \$8,000,000 in value, of which pork, lard, and tobacco are the principal articles. The city is also extensively engaged in the manufacture of iron, brass, and flour. The coal for this purpose is mined about a mile from the Court House. A large portion of the population is of German origin.

The town was laid out in 1836, at which time the site was covered with a dense forest. It received its name from Robert Morgan Evans, a native of Virginia, one of the original proprietors.

FORT WAYNE,

In Allen county, is situated at the confluence of the St. Joseph's and St. Mary's rivers, which here unite and form the Maumee. It is 112 miles northeast of Indianapolis, and 96 west of Toledo, Ohio. The city is laid out on the level prairie land, and is well built. It has grown rapidly in the past ten years, and its railway connections have made it a place of considerable importance. The Wabash and Erie Canal connects it with the Ohio and Lake Erie.



NEW ALBANY.

NEW ALBANY,

In Floyd county, on the right bank of the Ohio River, is a very thriving city. It is 3 miles below the falls of the Ohio, and 5 miles below Louisville, 136 miles below Cincinnati, and 100 miles south-by-east from Indianapolis. It is a handsome city, built on level ground, at a slight elevation above the river, with broad well-paved streets, shaded with handsome trees. It contains some showy buildings and fine residences. The principal are the county buildings.

MISCELLANY.

THE MEETING OF GENERAL HARRISON AND TECUMSEH.

In the spring of 1810, General Harrison, being Governor of the Northwestern Territory, and residing at Vincennes—the seat of Government—had learned from various quarters that Tecumseh had been visiting the different Indian tribes, scattered along the valleys of the Wabash and Illinois, with a view of forming an alliance and making common cause against the whites, and that there was great probability that his mission had been successful. Aware, as he was, that if this was the case, and that if the combination had been formed, such as was represented, the settlements in the southern portion of Indiana and Illinois were in great danger; that Vincennes itself would be the first object of attack, and that, with a handful of troops in the territory, a successful resistance might not be made; and not probably fully aware of the extent of the organization attempted by Tecumseh, and desirous of avoiding, if he could, the necessity of a call to arms, he sent a message to him, then residing at the “Prophet’s Town,” inviting

him to a council, to be held at as early a period as possible, for the purpose of talking over and amicably settling all difficulties which might exist between the whites and the Shawnees. It was not until the month of August of the same year, that Tecumseh, accompanied by about 70 of his warriors, made his appearance. They encamped on the banks of the Wabash, just above the town, and Tecumseh gave notice to the Governor that, in pursuance of his invitation, he had come to hold a talk "with him and his braves." The succeeding day was appointed for the meeting. The Governor made all suitable preparations for it. The officers of the territory and the leading citizens of the town were invited to be present, while a portion of a company of militia was detailed as a guard—fully armed and equipped for any emergency. Notice had been sent to Tecumseh, previous to the meeting, that it was expected that himself and a portion of his principal warriors would be present at the council. The council was held in the open lawn before the Governor's house, in a grove of trees which then surrounded it. But two of these, I regret to say, are now remaining. At the time appointed, Tecumseh and some 15 or 20 of his warriors made their appearance. With a firm and elastic step, and with a proud and somewhat defiant look, he advanced to the place where the Governor and those who had been invited to attend the conference were sitting. This place had been fenced in, with a view of preventing the crowd from encroaching upon the council during its deliberations. As he stepped forward, he seemed to scan the preparations which had been made for his reception, particularly the military part of it, with an eye of suspicion—by no means, however, of fear. As he came in front of the *dais*, an elevated portion of the place, upon which the Governor and the officers of the territory were seated, the Governor invited him, through his interpreter, to come forward and take a seat with him and his counsellors, premising the invitation by saying: "That it was the wish of *their* 'Great Father,' the President of the United States, that he should do so." The chief paused for a moment, as the words were uttered and the sentence finished, and raising his tall form to its greatest height, surveyed the troops and the crowd around him. Then, with his keen eyes fixed upon the Governor for a single moment, and turning them to the sky above, with his sinewy arm pointing toward the heavens, and with a tone and manner indicative of supreme contempt for the paternity assigned him, said, in a voice whose clarion tone was heard throughout the whole assembly:

"My Father?—The sun is my father—the earth is my mother—and on her bosom I will recline." Having finished, he stretched himself with his warriors on the greensward. The effect, it is said, was electrical, and for some moments there was perfect silence.

The Governor, through the interpreter, then informed him, "that he had understood he had complaints to make, and redress to ask, for certain wrongs which he (Tecumseh) supposed had been done his tribe, as well as the others; that he felt disposed to listen to the one and make satisfaction for the other, if it was proper that he should do so. That in all his intercourse and negotiations with the Indians, he had endeavored to act justly and honorably with them, and believed he had done so, and had learned of no complaint of his conduct until he learned that Tecumseh was endeavoring to create dissatisfaction toward the Government, not only among the Shawnees, but among the other tribes dwelling on the Wabash and Illinois; and had, in so doing, produced a great deal of trouble between them and the whites, by averring that the tribes whose land the Government had lately purchased, had no right to sell, nor their chiefs any authority to

convey. That he, the Governor, had invited him to attend the council, with a view of learning from his own lips, whether there was any truth in the reports which he had heard, and to learn whether he, or his tribe, had any just cause of complaint against the whites, and, if so, as a man and a warrior, openly to avow it. That as between himself and as great a warrior as Tecumseh there should be no concealment—all should be done by them under a clear sky, and in an open path, and with these feelings on his own part, he was glad to meet him in council." Tecumseh arose as soon as the Governor had finished. Those who knew him speak of him as one of the most splendid specimens of his tribe—celebrated for their physical proportions and fine forms, even among the nations who surrounded them. Tall, athletic, and manly, dignified, but graceful, he seemed the beau ideal of an Indian chieftain. In a voice first low, but, with all its indistinctness, musical, he commenced his reply. As he warmed with his subject, his clear tones might be heard, as if "trumpet-tongued," to the utmost limits of the assembled crowd who surrounded him. The most perfect silence prevailed, except when the warriors who surrounded him gave their guttural assent to some eloquent recital of the red man's wrong and the white man's injustice. Well instructed in the traditions of his tribe, fully acquainted with their history, the councils, treaties, and battles of the two races for half a century, he recapitulated the wrongs of the red man from the massacre of the Moravian Indians, during the Revolutionary war, down to the period he had met the Governor in council. He told him "he did not know how he could ever again be the friend of the white man." In reference to the public domain, he asserted "that the Great Spirit had given all the country from the Miami to the Mississippi, from the lakes to the Ohio, as a common property to all the tribes that dwelt within those borders, and that the land could not, and should not be sold without the consent of all. That all the tribes on the continent formed but one nation. That if the United States would not give up the lands they had bought of the Miamis, the Delawares, the Potawatomes, and other tribes, that those united with him were determined to fall on those tribes and annihilate them. That they were determined to have no more chiefs, but in future to be governed by their warriors. That their tribes had been driven toward the setting sun, like a galloping horse (Ne-kat-a-cush-e Ka-top-o-lin-to). That for himself and his warriors, he had determined to resist all further aggressions of the whites, and that with his consent, or that of the Shawnees, they should never acquire another foot of land." To those who have never heard of the Shawnee language, I may here remark it is the most musical and euphonious of all the Indian languages of the West. When spoken rapidly by a fluent speaker, it sounds more like the scanning of Greek and Latin verse, than anything I can compare it to. The effect of this address, of which I have simply given the outline, and which occupied an hour in the delivery, may be readily imagined.

William Henry Harrison was as brave a man as ever lived. All who knew him will acknowledge his courage, moral and physical, but he was wholly unprepared for such a speech as this. There was a coolness, an independence, a defiance in the whole manner and matter of the chieftain's speech which astonished even him. He knew Tecumseh well. He had learned to appreciate his high qualities as a man and warrior. He knew his power, his skill, his influence, not only over his own tribe, but over those who dwelt on the waters of the Wabash and Illinois. He knew he was no braggart—that what he said he meant—that he promised he intended to perform. He was fully aware that he was a foe not

to be treated light—an enemy to be conciliated, not scorned—one to be met with kindness, not contempt. There was a stillness throughout the assembly when Tecumseh had done speaking which was painful. Not a whisper was to be heard—all eyes were turned from the speaker to the Governor. The unwarranted and unwarrantable pretensions of the chief, and the bold and defiant tone in which he had announced them, staggered even him. It was some moments before he arose. Addressing Tecumseh, who had taken his seat with his warriors, he said: “That the charges of bad faith made against the Government, and the assertion that injustice had been done the Indians in any treaty ever made, or any council ever held with them by the United States, had no foundation in fact. That in all their dealings with the red man, they had ever been governed by the strictest rules of right and justice. That while other civilized nations had treated them with contumely and contempt, ours had always acted in good faith with them. That so far as he individually was concerned, he could say, in the presence of the ‘Great Spirit,’ who was watching over their deliberations, that his conduct, even with the most insignificant tribe, had been marked with kindness, and all his acts governed by honor, integrity, and fair dealing. That he had uniformly been the friend of the red man, and that it was the first time in his life that his motives had been questioned or his actions impeached. It was the first time in his life that he had ever heard such unfounded claims put forth, as Tecumseh had set up, by any chief, or any Indian, having the least regard for truth, or the slightest knowledge of the intercourse between the Indian and the white man, from the time this continent was first discovered.” What the Governor had said thus far had been interpreted by Barron, the interpreter to the Shawnees, and he was about interpreting it to the Miamis and Potawatomes, who formed part of the cavalcade, when Tecumseh, addressing the interpreter in Shawnee, said, “He lies!” Barron, who had, as all subordinates (especially in the Indian department) have, a great reverence and respect for the “powers that be,” commenced interpreting the language of Tecumseh to the Governor, but not exactly in the terms made use of, when Tecumseh, who understood but little English, perceived from his embarrassment and awkwardness, that he was not giving his words, interrupted him, and, again addressing him in Shawnee, said: “No, no; *tell him he lies.*” The guttural assent of his party showed they coincided with their chief’s opinion. General Gibson, Secretary of the Territory, who understood Shawnee, had not been an inattentive spectator of the scene, and understanding the import of the language made use of, and from the excited state of Tecumseh and his party, was apprehensive of violence, made a signal to the troops in attendance to shoulder their arms and advance. They did so. The speech of Tecumseh was literally translated to the Governor. He directed Barron to say to him, “he would hold no further council with him,” and the meeting broke up.

One can hardly imagine a more exciting scene—one which would be a finer subject for an “historical painting,” to adorn the rotunda of the Capitol. On the succeeding day, Tecumseh requested another interview with the Governor, which was granted on condition that he should make an apology to the Governor for his language the day before: This he made through the interpreter. Measures for defence and protection were, however, taken, lest there should be another outbreak. Two companies of militia were ordered from the country, and the one in town added to them, while the Governor and his friends went into council fully armed and prepared for any contingency. The conduct of Tecumseh upon

this occasion was entirely different from that of the day before. Firm and intrepid, showing not the slightest fear or alarm, surrounded as he was with the military force quadrupling his own, he preserved the utmost composure and equanimity. No one could have discerned from his looks, although he must have fully understood the object of calling in the troops, that he was in the slightest degree disconcerted. He was cautious in his bearing, dignified in his manner, and no one from observing him would for a moment have supposed he was the principal actor in the thrilling scene of the previous day.

In the interval between the sessions of the first and second council, Tecumseh had told Barron, the interpreter, "that he had been informed by the *whites*, that the people of the Territory were almost equally divided, half in favor of Tecumseh, and the other adhering to the Governor." The same statement he made in council. He said "that two *Americans* had made him a visit, one in the course of the preceding winter, the other lately, and informed him that Governor Harrison had purchased land from the Indians without any authority from the Government, and that one half of the people were opposed to the purchase. He also told the Governor that he, Harrison, had but two years more to remain in office, and that he, Tecumseh, could prevail upon the Indians who sold the lands not to receive their annuities for that time; that when the Governor was displaced, as he would be, and a good man appointed as his successor, he would restore to the Indians all the lands purchased from them." After Tecumseh had concluded his speech, a Wyandotte, a Kickapoo, a Potawatomie, an Ottawa, and a Winnebago chief, severally spoke, and declared that their tribes had entered into the "Shawnee Confederacy," and would support the principles laid down by Tecumseh, whom they had appointed their leader.

At the conclusion of the council, the Governor informed Tecumseh that "he would immediately transmit his speech to the President, and as soon as his answer was received, would send it to him; but, as a person had been appointed to run the boundary line of the new purchase, he wished to know whether there would be danger in his proceeding to run the line." Tecumseh replied, "that he and his allies were determined that the old boundary line should continue, and that if the whites crossed it, it would be at their peril." The Governor replied, "that since Tecumseh had been thus candid in stating his determination, he would be equally so with him. The President, he was convinced, would never allow that the lands on the Wabash were the property of any other tribes than those who had occupied them and lived on them since the white people came to America. And as the title to the lands lately purchased was derived from those tribes by fair purchase, he might rest assured that the right of the United States would be supported by the sword."

"So be it," was the stern and haughty reply of the Shawnee chieftain, as he and his braves took leave of the Governor and wended their way in Indian file to their camping ground. And thus ended the last conference on earth between the chivalrous and gallant Tecumseh, the Shawnee chief, and he who since the period alluded to has ruled the destinies of the nation as its Chief Magistrate. The bones of the first lie bleaching on the battle field of the Thames—those of the last are deposited in the mausoleum that covers them on the banks of the Ohio.

ILLINOIS.

Area,	55,410 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	1,711,951
Population in 1870,	2,539,891

THE State of Illinois is situated between 37° and $42^{\circ} 30'$ N. latitude, and between $87^{\circ} 30'$ and $91^{\circ} 40'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Wisconsin, on the east by Lake Michigan and Indiana, on the south by Kentucky, and on the west by Missouri and Iowa. It is separated from Kentucky by the Ohio, and from Missouri and Iowa by the Mississippi. One half of the eastern part is divided from Indiana by the Wabash.

TOPOGRAPHY.

There is a hilly region in the southern part, and some rugged country in the northwest; but as a general rule, the surface of Illinois is level, consisting in many parts of gently undulating prairies, which are covered with a luxuriant grass and an abundance of beautiful wild flowers. They also abound in wild fowl. Says a recent writer:

“The great landscape feature of Illinois is its prairies, which are seen in almost every section of the State. The want of variety, which is ordinarily essential to landscape attraction, is more than compensated for in the prairie scenery, as in that of the boundless ocean, by the impressive qualities of immensity and power. Far as the most searching eye can reach, the great unvarying plain rolls on; its sublime grandeur softened but not weakened by the occasional groups of trees in its midst, or by the forests on its verge, or by the countless flowers everywhere upon its surface. The prairies abound in game. The prairie duck, sometimes but improperly called grouse,

are most abundant in September and October, when large numbers are annually taken. Perhaps the most striking picture of the prairie country is to be found on *Grand Prairie*. Its gently undulating plains, profusely decked with flowers of every hue, and skirted on all sides by woodland copse, roll on through many long miles from Jackson county, northeast to Iroquois county, with a width varying from one to a dozen or more miles. The uniform level of the prairie region is supposed to result from the deposit of waters by which the land was ages ago covered. The soil is entirely free from stones, and is extremely fertile. The most notable characteristic of the prairies, their destitution of vegetation, excepting in the multitude of rank grasses and flowers, will gradually disappear, since nothing prevents the growth of the trees but the continual fires which sweep over the plains. These prevented, a fine growth of timber soon springs up; and as the woodlands are thus assisted in encroaching upon and occupying the plains, settlements, and habitations will follow, until the prairie tracts are overrun with cities and towns. Of the thirty-five and a half millions of acres embraced within the State, but thirteen millions, or little more than one-third, were improved in 1860, showing that despite her wonderful progress in population and production, she is yet only in her infancy. Excepting the specialty of the prairie, the most interesting landscape scenery of this State is that of the bold, acclivitous river shores of the Mississippi, the Ohio, and the Illinois rivers."*

Lake Michigan forms the northern part of the eastern boundary. Chicago, the principal city, is situated near the southern end of the lake, and possesses a very large lake trade. The other towns on Lake Michigan are, Otsego, Waukegan, Rockland, and Evanston.

The Mississippi River forms the western boundary of this State, and receives the waters of the Rock, Illinois, and Kaskaskia rivers, besides those of several smaller streams. The important places on the Mississippi, beginning on the north, are Galena, Rock Island, Oquawka, Quincy, Alton, East St. Louis, and Thebes. *The Ohio River* forms the southern boundary, and empties into the Mississippi, at the extreme southern end of the State. The city of Cairo is situated at the confluence of these two rivers, and is an important place. *The Illinois River* is the largest in the State. It is formed by the confluence of the Des Plaines and Kankakee, which unite at

* Appleton's Hand-Book of American Travel.

Dresden, in Grundy county, southwest of Lake Michigan. It flows across the State in a southwestern direction, and empties into the Mississippi about 20 miles from Alton. It is about 320 miles long, and has been rendered navigable at all seasons, to Ottawa, 286 miles from the Mississippi. Peoria, 200 miles from its mouth, is the most important town on the river. The Fox and Sangamon rivers are its principal branches. The former rises in Wisconsin, and is 200 miles long. It is a fine mill-stream; the latter rises in the east-central part of the State, and flows west into the Illinois. It is 200 miles long, and is navigable at high water for small steamers. *The Rock River* rises in Fond du Lac county, in Wisconsin, about 10 miles south of Lake Winnebago, and flows southward into Illinois, near the centre of the northern part of the State. It then turns to the southwest and flows across the State into the Mississippi, at Rock Island City. It is 330 miles long, and though interrupted in several places by rapids, could be rendered navigable at a small expense; steamers have ascended it to Jefferson, Wisconsin, 225 miles. It flows through one of the most beautiful and fertile portions of Illinois. *The Kaskaskia River* rises in Champaign county, in the eastern part of the centre of the State, and flows southwest into the Mississippi a few miles below the town of Kaskaskia. It is 300 miles long, and is navigable for steamers for a considerable distance. *The Vermilion, Embarras, and Little Wabash rivers*, small streams, flow into the Wabash from this State.

Several small lakes lie in the northern part of the State.

MINERALS.

There are extensive deposits of lead in the extreme northwestern part of this State, and extending into Wisconsin and Iowa. The principal mines lie in the vicinity of Galena. Copper exists in large quantities in the northern part of the State. Bituminous coal abounds. Iron is also found in abundance in the north, and to a limited extent in the south, and it is said that silver has been discovered in St. Clair county. There are a number of salt springs in the State, and a variety of medicinal springs. The other minerals are zinc, lime, marble, freestone, gypsum, and quartz crystals.

CLIMATE.

The climate is not very severe, but is subject to sudden changes. Deep snows are not of general occurrence, but occasionally take place, and at long intervals the rivers are frozen over.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

Illinois is one of the richest agricultural States in the Confederacy. "The soils are all highly fertile and productive. In the bottoms, or alluvial borders of the rivers, the soil is chiefly formed from the deposits of water during flood. In some cases the mould so formed is twenty-five feet and upward in depth, and of inexhaustible fertility. A tract called the 'American Bottom,' extending along the Mississippi for ninety miles, and about five miles in average width, is of this formation. About the French towns it has been cultivated, and produced Indian corn every year, without manuring, for a century and a half. The prairie lands, although not so productive, are yet not inferior for many agricultural purposes, and are preferred, where wood is to be had, on account of their superior salubrity. The barrens, or oak openings, have frequently a thin soil."

The agricultural wealth of the State is thus summed up in the Report of the General Land Office for 1867:

"In 1850, Illinois had 76,208 farms, valued at \$96,133,290; in 1860, 144,338, valued at \$408,944,033. The quantity of land in farms increased about 77 per cent. during the decade, the improved land 165 per cent., the cash value of farms about 325, and the value of farming implements and machinery nearly 200 per cent.

"The value of live stock in 1850 was \$24,209,258; in 1860, \$72,501,225; and in 1865, according to the State returns, it had advanced to \$123,770,554, showing an increase, during the ten years following 1850, of 200 per cent., or 20 per cent. per annum, and 70 per cent. for the five years following 1860, or 14 per cent. per annum.

"New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio are the only States making larger quantities of butter; and, in the value of slaughtered animals, Illinois is exceeded only by New York.

"In 1860, Illinois produced 23,837,023 bushels of wheat, and 115,174,777 bushels of Indian corn, being 14 bushels of wheat and 67 bushels of Indian corn to every man, woman, and child.

"The State surpassed all others in wheat and corn products, there having been cultivated upon its soil nearly one-seventh of the entire wheat and corn crop of the United States. In 1865, 177,095,852 bushels of Indian corn were produced, and 25,266,745 bushels of wheat. The entire grain crop in 1865, including Indian corn, wheat, rye, oats, barley, and buckwheat, amounted to 232,620,173 bushels. The crop of potatoes was 5,864,408 bushels, tobacco, 18,867,722 pounds, and

hay, 2,600,000 tons, the whole amounting in value to \$116,274,322. Besides this, there were produced in 1865, 5,000,000 pounds of cotton, a branch of industry just beginning to receive attention, yet already pronounced one of the most profitable crops in the southern part of the State; also large quantities of grass-seeds, maple and sorghum sugar and molasses, flax, flaxseed, hemp, hops, silk cocoons, bees-wax, honey, wine, butter and cheese, peas and beans. The wool clip in 1865 was over 6,000,000 pounds; orchard products of the value of \$2,000,000, and market \$500,000.

"The year 1865 was unfavorable for wheat in Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, the yield in each being less than either 1862, 1863, or 1864. Illinois then produced 32,213,500 bushels.

"In every year since 1860, the State has maintained a position as the leading wheat and corn-growing region, while the product of other staples is annually increasing."

In 1869 the principal returns were as follows:

Bushels of wheat,	29,200,000
" Indian corn,	121,500,000
" oats,	35,726,000
" Irish potatoes,	7,500,000
" rye,	675,000
" buckwheat,	251,000
" barley,	1,250,000
Pounds of butter,	28,052,551
Tons of hay,	2,800,000
Number of horses,	1,340,320
" mules and asses,	99,450
" milch cows,	850,340
" sheep,	1,340,120
" swine,	3,502,820
" young cattle,	2,320,500
Value of domestic animals,	\$100,501,270

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

Illinois possesses a large lake and river trade, dealing principally in agricultural products. The grain trade of Chicago is immense; the lumber trade is also important, and Chicago is at present the principal pork market of the Republic.

Manufactures are rapidly increasing in Illinois. In 1870, the State contained 12,597 establishments devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts. They employed a capital of \$94,368,057, and 82,979 hands; consumed raw material worth \$127,600,077, and yielded an annual product of \$205,620,672.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

Illinois is one of the foremost States in the Union in respect to its internal improvements. In 1872, there were 5904 miles of completed railroads in the State, constructed at a cost of nearly \$200,000,000. The Report of the General Land Office for 1867 thus refers to the internal improvements of this State :

“The railroad system is on a scale commensurate with its advantageous position in respect to agriculture and internal commerce ; 3160 miles are completed, and now in operation, 812 miles more are in course of construction, making in the aggregate 3979 miles, or one mile of railroad to 14 square miles of territory. Eight lines cross the eastern boundary of the State, and the Mississippi River is approached within the State by thirteen, connecting with the east and west through routes across the States of Missouri and Iowa, and northern routes through Wisconsin and Minnesota, westward to the Pacific, and eastward to the great trade marts of the Atlantic coast. In addition to the facilities thus afforded to commerce, a canal has been constructed from Lake Michigan, at Chicago, to La Salle. on the Illinois River, 100 miles in length, affording communication by water between the lake and the Mississippi. The canal is now being enlarged by deepening its channel to accommodate large class vessels, so that the waters of Lake Michigan will flow through to the Illinois River, the bed of which is improved so as to establish uninterrupted steam navigation at all seasons from the Mississippi, by way of the lakes and the St. Lawrence, to the Atlantic.”

EDUCATION.

There are twenty-four colleges in Illinois ; the majority of them are in prosperous condition. Some of them are really entitled to rank only as academies and seminaries.

The public school system is excellent. There is a permanent school fund, and taxes are levied for the support of the schools. In 1870, the amount thus expended in the State was \$6,027,510. In the same year there were 11,050 schools in the State, conducted by 20,097 teachers, and attended by 677,623 children.

The *State Normal University* is located at Normal, near the city of Bloomington, and is a flourishing institution, amply provided with buildings and grounds. At the close of the regular term, a Teachers'

Institute is usually held for two weeks, and is attended by hundreds of teachers from all parts of the State.

The *State Industrial University* is located at Quincy. It was opened in 1868, and has a good number of students. It embraces the following schools: Science, Literature, and Arts; Agriculture; Mechanical Science and Art; Military Tactics and Engineering; Mining and Metallurgy; Civil Engineering; Analytical and Applied Chemistry; Natural History and Practical Geology; Commercial Science and Art. Students may choose their studies, provided they are sufficiently advanced to keep up with the regular classes.

The educational system of the State is under the general supervision of a State Superintendent of Public Schools, who is elected by the people for four years. He has power to make such rules as he may deem necessary for the government of the schools, and his construction of existing laws upon this subject must be accepted by his subordinates. He reports once in two years to the Legislature. Each county is in charge of a County Superintendent, who is required to visit the schools and direct their general operations. He reports biennially to the State Superintendent. Each township elects its Trustees, who have the immediate management of its schools. They report once in two years to the County Superintendent. Each District has three Directors, who manage the finances of the schools.

All teachers are required to possess certificates of competency from the State or County Superintendent. A County Superintendent's certificate is good for two years in the county in which it is issued. The State Superintendent's certificate is good in any part of Illinois during the life of its holder.

In 1870, there were 785 private schools in Illinois, attended by 90,152 pupils.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The *State Penitentiary* is located at Joliet, and was completed in 1868.

"The whole area of land pertaining to the Penitentiary is 72.19 acres; whole area within main wall, 16 acres; the main wall is 25 feet high and 6 feet thick; there are 100 cells for separate system, 7 by 15 feet, and 15 feet high; 900 cells for congregate system, and 100 cells for females, 4 by 7 feet, and 7 feet high. Each cell has a distinct ventilating tube extending to roof, with two registers in each. All partitions, floors, and ceiling of cells are formed each of one stone,

eight inches thick. The buildings and walls stand on rock foundation. All the buildings and grounds are supplied with pure water from a spring at the bluff; the buildings are warmed by steam; the kitchen and wash rooms are furnished with steam and other cooking and washing fixtures of the most modern and approved kinds. The engines, of 150 horse power each, furnish the motive power for the machinery, running nearly 1500 feet of heavy line shafting. Altogether, it is one of the most complete prisons in the United States, as well as the most extensive and best arranged manufacturing establishment in the West. Until July, 1867, the labor of convicts had been farmed out to contractors, who were bound to meet all the expenses of the prison. At that date, the State assumed entire control. A Board of Commissioners was appointed by the Governor, and this Board selected a Warden, who has the general management of the prison, under the direction of the Commissioners. All minors under the age of 18, except for the crime of robbery, burglary, or arson, convicted of any criminal offence, are exempted from punishment in the Penitentiary. They may be fined and sent to county jail, or either, for misdemeanors, but for higher crimes are always sent to the county jail. The number of these young offenders is steadily increasing in the State." *

The *Illinois State Hospital for the Insane*, the *Institution for the Education of the Blind*, and the *Institution for Idiots and Imbeciles*, are located at Jacksonville. They are admirably organized and conducted, and are furnished with commodious buildings. They take rank among the first institutions of a similar nature in the Union.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, there were 3459 churches in Illinois. The value of church property was \$22,664,283.

LIBRARIES AND NEWSPAPERS.

In 1870, there were 13,570 libraries in Illinois, containing 3,323,914 volumes. Of these, over 5000 are public libraries.

In the same year the number of newspapers and periodicals published in the State was as follows: daily, 39; semi-weekly, 4; tri-weekly, 10; weekly, 364; miscellaneous, 88; making a total of 505, with an aggregate annual circulation of 113,140,492 copies.

* American Year Book, vol. i., p. 321.

FINANCES.

On the 30th of November, 1874, the State debt amounted to \$1,730,972, being \$329,178 less than on December 1st, 1872. The receipts of the Treasury for the fiscal year ending November 30th, 1868, were \$2,276,763, and the expenditures \$2,126,668.

In 1868, there were 83 National banks, with a capital of \$12,070,000 doing business in the State.

GOVERNMENT.

Every male citizen, 21 years old, who has resided in the State one year, and in the county ninety days, is entitled to vote at the elections.

The government of the State is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Auditor, and Attorney-General, and a Legislature, consisting of a Senate (of 51 members chosen for four years, one-half retiring biennially), and a House of Representatives (of 153 members, chosen for two years), all elected by the people. All the State officers, except the Treasurer, whose term is two years, are chosen for four years. The Legislature meets annually on the first Monday in January.

The courts of the State are, the Supreme Judicial Court, 28 Circuit Courts, and Justices' Courts. The Supreme Court consists of three divisions, corresponding to the three divisions of the State, and has appellate jurisdiction only. The city of Chicago has its own courts.

The seat of Government is established at Springfield.

The State is divided into 102 counties.

HISTORY.

This State was first known to the whites by the name of "The Illinois Country," and was first explored, in 1673, by Marquette (a missionary), and Joliet, who came from Canada, and were followed by La Salle and Hennepin. About the year 1693, mission stations were established by the French at Kaskaskia, Cahokia, and Peoria. During the early part of the eighteenth century the French made several settlements on the lower Mississippi, and a Jesuit monastery was established at Kaskaskia. Towards the middle of the eighteenth century, the British began to advance their claims to the Illinois

country, and the French commenced to build new forts and strengthen the old ones to resist them. In 1763, all the French possessions east of the Mississippi were ceded to Great Britain, who thus became mistress of the Illinois country.

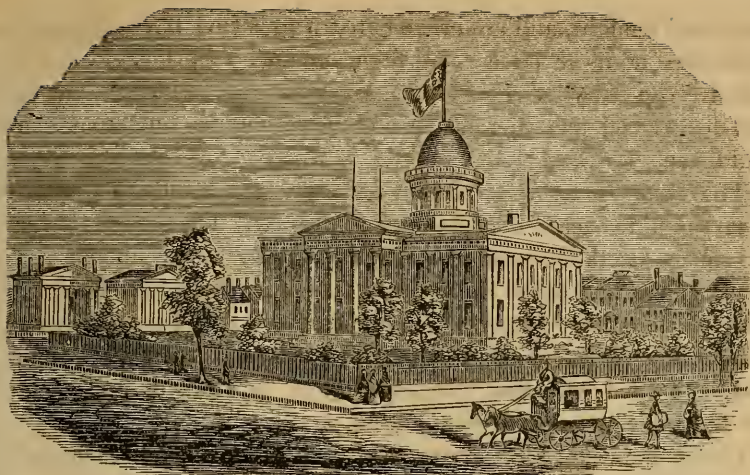
During the Revolution the British had posts at Kaskaskia, Cahokia, and St. Vincent (the latter now Vincennes, Indiana). They were captured by General Rogers Clark, the American commander in this region, in one of the most memorable campaigns in our history.

In 1784, Virginia ceded her territory northwest of the Ohio River (of which Illinois then formed a part) to the United States. In 1800, the Territory of Indiana was formed, embracing the country between the State of Ohio and the Mississippi, and, in 1809, Illinois was erected into a separate Territory, with its present name. It grew rapidly in population, and on the 23d of December, 1818, was admitted into the Union as a sovereign State.

During the war of 1812 the settlers suffered much from the savages and British. In the year 1812, Captain Heald, commanding Fort Dearborn, which occupied the site of the present city of Chicago, was directed by General Hull, who surrendered Detroit to the British, to evacuate that post, distribute his stores among the Indians, and retire to Fort Wayne, in Indiana. Captain Heald had no confidence in the savages, and threw his powder into the wells, and poured his whiskey on the ground. This done, he abandoned the fort, and set out on his march to Indiana. The savages were particularly anxious to obtain the powder and whiskey, and were so exasperated at failing to secure them that they fell upon the garrison after it had proceeded two miles from the fort, and massacred 41 men, 2 women, and 12 children. This terrible occurrence for a long time cast a gloom over the Territory.

In 1832, during the prevalence of the Black Hawk War, the northern part of the State suffered much from the depredations of the savages.

In 1840, the Mormons, being driven out of Missouri, settled on the east bank of the Mississippi, in this State, and founded a city which they called Nauvoo. They were granted extraordinary privileges by the State, but were the object of the bitter hatred of the inhabitants of the surrounding country. Several conflicts occurred between the two parties, and the State militia was called out to preserve the peace. Joseph Smith, the Mormon leader and "Prophet," and his brother, Hiram, were imprisoned in the jail at Carthage, where



STATE HOUSE, SPRINGFIELD.

they were attacked by a mob and assassinated, on the 27th of June, 1844. The prisoners were at the time under the protection of the State, and this made the assassination all the more outrageous. Like all such violent acts, it failed of its object, and made the success of Mormonism more certain. Soon after this, the Mormons abandoned Nauvoo, and began their emigration to their present home in Utah.

During the late war, the State of Illinois furnished (to December 1, 1864) 197,364 troops to the service of the United States.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the principal cities and towns of Illinois are, Chicago, Peoria, Quincy, Bellville, Alton, Rockford, Galena, and Bloomington.

SPRINGFIELD,

The capital and fourth city of the State, is situated in Sangamon county, 3 miles south of the Sangamon River, 97 miles northeast of St. Louis, and 188 miles southwest of Chicago. Latitude $39^{\circ} 48'$ N.; longitude $89^{\circ} 33'$ W. The city lies near the centre of the State, and is built on the open prairie which surrounds it in every direction. It is regularly laid out, and is well built. The streets are

wide and straight, and are ornamented with shade trees. From the abundance of its shrubbery and floral ornaments Springfield has been called "the City of Flowers." Many of the residences are large and handsome, and the business section contains numerous showy buildings.

The *State House* is an elegant structure, and stands in a beautiful square of three acres, in the centre of the city. On the streets facing the square are the various public buildings of the State and city. The *Court House* and *State Arsenal* are the other prominent buildings. The city contains about 13 churches, several public and private schools, the *Illinois State University*, 2 hotels, and 5 newspaper offices, and is lighted with gas. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 17,365.

Lying in a country unsurpassed in fertility, Springfield is a place of considerable commercial importance. It has railway connections with Chicago and St. Louis, and with all parts of the State and the West. It is also engaged in the manufacture of flour, woollen goods, and iron ware. In the vicinity are extensive beds of bituminous coal.

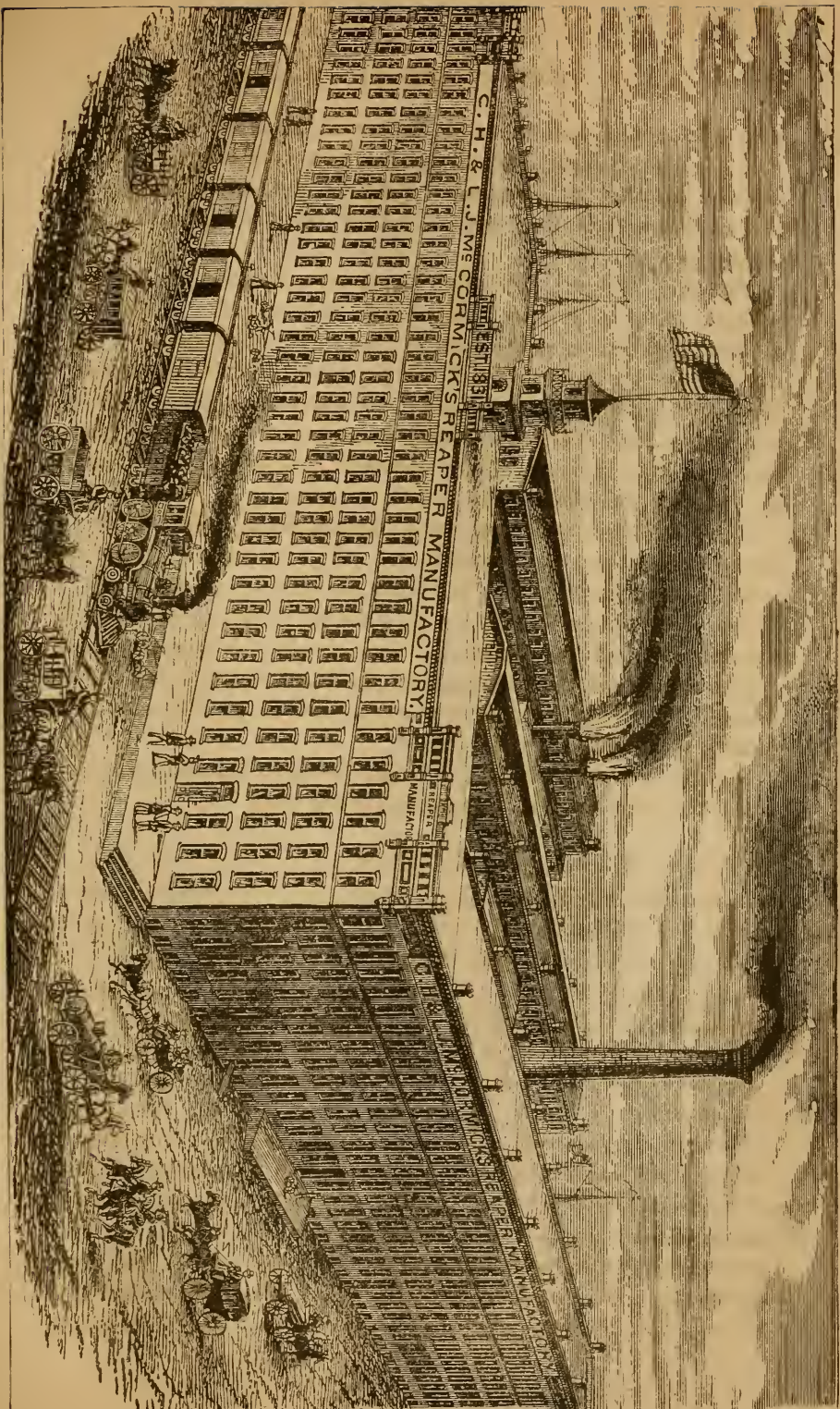
The city is noted as having been the home of the late President Lincoln. In the picturesque cemetery of Oak Ridge, two miles north of the city, the statesman lies buried.

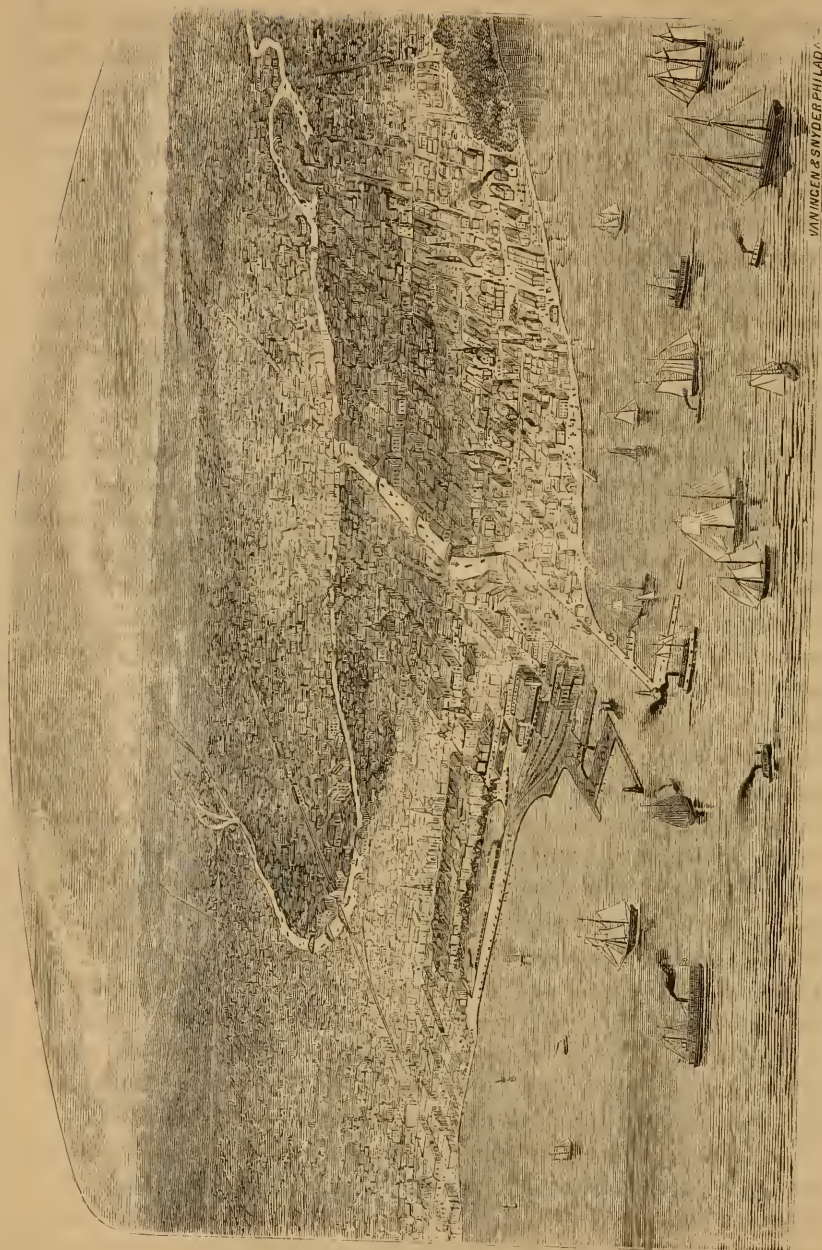
Springfield was first settled in 1819. In 1822 it was formally laid out, and in 1837 it became the capital of the State.

CHICAGO,

The metropolis of the State, is the fifth city of the Republic and the second city of the Western States. It is situated in Cook county, on the western side of Lake Michigan, about 30 miles north of its southern end, at the mouth of the Chicago River, on the margin of a prairie several miles in width. It is 188 miles northeast of Springfield, 285 miles northeast of St. Louis, 300 miles northwest of Cincinnati, 928 miles northwest of New York, and 763 miles northwest of Washington.

The site of Chicago is low, being but five feet above the lake, but sufficiently elevated to prevent inundation. "The general direction of the lake shore here is north and south. The water, except at the mouth of the river, is shoal, and vessels, missing the entrance ground, go to pieces in a storm within 100 yards of the shore. The harbor of Chicago is the river, and nothing more. It is a short, deep, sluggish stream, creeping through the black, fat mud of the prairie, and





VAN NICE & SWEDEPHILDA

CHICAGO.

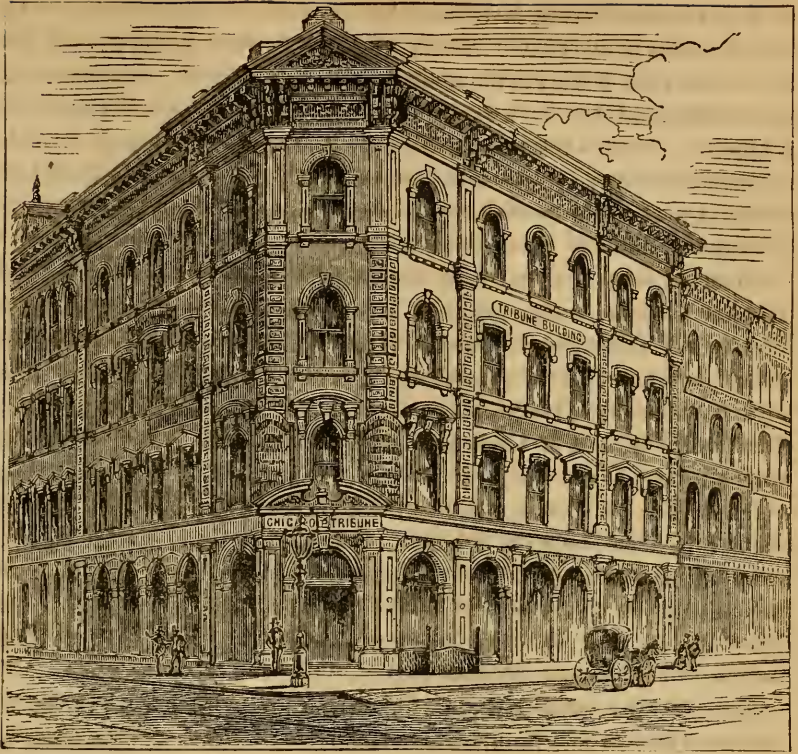
in some places would hardly be thought worthy of a name; but it makes itself wonderfully useful here. Outside of its mouth a vessel has no protection, nor are there any piers or wharves. The mouth of the river has been docked and dredged out, to afford a more easy entrance; but, after you are once in, it narrows to a mere canal, from 50 to 75 yards in width. The general course of the river, for about three-fourths of a mile, is at right angles with the lake shore, and this portion is known as *the Chicago River*. It here divides, or more properly, two branches unite to form it, coming from opposite directions, and at nearly right angles to the main stream. These are called, respectively, the 'North Branch' and the 'South Branch,' and are each navigable for some 4 miles, giving, in the aggregate, a river front of some 15 or 16 miles, capable of being increased by canals and slips, some of which have already been constructed. Into the 'South Branch' comes the Illinois Canal, extending from this point 100 miles to La Salle, on the Illinois River, forming water communication between the lakes and the Mississippi. For the want of a map, take the letter H; call the upright column on the right hand the lake shore; let the cross-bar represent the Chicago River, the left hand column will stand for the two branches, and you have a plan of the water lines of the City of Chicago, which will answer very well for all purposes of general description. The general divisions thus formed are called, respectively, 'North Side,' 'South Side,' 'West Side.' In this narrow, muddy river, lie the heart and strength of Chicago. Dry this up, and Chicago would dry up with it, mean and dirty as it looks. From the mouth of the St. Joseph River, in Michigan, round to Milwaukee, in the State of Wisconsin, a distance, by the lake shore, of more than 250 miles, Chicago is the only place where 20 vessels can be loaded or unloaded, or find shelter in a storm. A glance at the map, then, will show that it is the only accessible port—and hence the commercial centre—of a vast territory, measuring thousands of square miles of the richest agricultural country in the world."

The harbor is being gradually deepened to admit vessels of a large class, and is being so greatly improved at the expense of the General Government that it will soon be one of the best on the lakes.

The city is regularly laid out in rectangular blocks, with the streets having an average width of 80 feet. From the lake the city extends westward for about 5 miles. Its length, parallel with the lake, is about 8 miles. The ground gradually rises to the westward to an extent sufficient to drain the city thoroughly. The streets are paved

to a great extent with the Nicholson pavement of wooden blocks. Until 1856, most of the streets of Chicago were planked, and the buildings then erected were generally without cellars. Consequently in the spring of the year the ground asserted its original character of a swamp. Since 1856, it has become necessary to change the grade of the city several times, and this has made a difference of from two to five feet in the original level. The process of *raising* the houses of Chicago was one of great interest. Buildings of immense size, and even entire blocks, were raised several feet above their original level without a crack being made in them, or a single thing displaced. During all this time the houses were occupied, and the business and every day life of the occupants went on as usual. The following account from the *Chicago Tribune*, of the raising of a entire block of business houses, in the spring of 1860, will show how the work was carried on :

“For the past week the marvel and the wonder of our citizens and visitors has been the spectacle of a solid front of first-class business blocks, comprising the entire block on the north side of Lake street, between Clark and La Salle streets, a length of 320 feet, being raised about four feet by the almost resistless lifting force of 6000 screws. The block comprises 13 first-class stores, and a large double marble structure, the Marine Bank Building. Its subdivisions are a five-story marble front block of three stores ; a second four-story block of three stores, and a five-story block of four stores, at the corner of Clark street—these all presenting an unbroken front, in the heart of our city, and filled with occupants. This absence from annoyance to the merchants and the public was due to the skill with which the contractors hung the side walks to the block itself, and carried up the same with the rise of the building. The block was raised four feet eight inches, the required height, in five days, when the masons put in the permanent supports. The entire work occupied about four weeks. An estimate from a reliable source made the entire weight thus raised about 35,000 tons. So carefully was it done, that not a pane of glass was broken, nor a crack in masonry appeared. The internal order of the block prevailed undisturbed. The process of raising, as indicated above, was by the screw, at 6000 of which, three inches in diameter and of three-eighths thread, 600 men were employed, each man in charge of from eight to ten screws. A complete system of signals was kept in operation, and by these the workmen passed, each through his series, giving each screw a quarter turn,



THE TRIBUNE BUILDING.

then returning to repeat the same. Five days' labor saw the immense weight rise through four feet eight inches, to where it stood on temporary supports, while rapidly being replaced by permanent foundations. The work, as it stands, is worth going miles to see, and has drawn the admiration of thousands within the past week."

Chicago is one of the most magnificent cities on the continent, and is often called the "New York of the West." The business streets are lined with splendid warehouses, which have no superiors in elegance and convenience in any of the Eastern cities. Iron, stone, and marble are in common use. Lake street is the Broadway of Chicago, while Michigan avenue and Wabash avenue are lined with princely edifices, and are adorned with rows of luxuriant trees. South Water street is devoted to the heavy wholesale trade. Many of the private residences on the north and west side of the river are handsomely built, and are surrounded with elegantly ornamented grounds.

The Chicago River is crossed by numerous bridges, uniting the various parts of the city. These are all drawbridges, made so in order not to interfere with the navigation of the river. They are hung in the middle, and turn on a pivot, only two men being needed for each bridge. In 1867-8, a tunnel was built under the river, and is now in constant use by vehicles and pedestrians. It is the only work of the kind in America, and with the exception of the Thames Tunnel, in London, the only one in the world.

Street railways connect the various portions of the corporate limits. The city is lighted with gas, and is supplied with water from Lake Michigan. The water is brought into the city by means of a tunnel, extending from the shore, under the bed of the lake, to a crib or well built up in the lake, two miles from the land. The depth of the shore shaft is 69 feet, and of the lake shaft 64 feet. The crib is simply a well into which the water of the lake is allowed to flow, and from which it makes its way to the city through the tunnel, which is nearly circular in form, being 5 feet 2 inches high, and 5 feet 2 inches wide. It is enclosed in brick masonry, 8 inches thick. The cost of the entire work was about \$1,000,000. The city contains two artesian wells of great value. They are respectively 911 and 694 feet deep, and flow about 1,200,000 gallons daily.

The principal public buildings are the *Custom House*, in which is the Post Office, a fine building of stone; the *Chamber of Commerce*, a beautiful edifice of white marble; the *Court House*; *Crosby's Opera House*; and the *Merchants' Exchange*. There are about 112 churches in the city. Some of which possess handsome buildings.

The schools of the city, both public and private, are noted for their excellence. There are about 27 public schools, 3 commercial colleges, and 24 Roman Catholic convents and schools in operation. The institutions of the higher class are the *University of Chicago*, founded by the late Senator Douglas, and possessing a series of elegant buildings; the *Chicago Theological Seminary*; the *Presbyterian Theological Seminary*; the *University of St. Mary of the Lake*; the *Rush Medical College*, and two other medical colleges. The *Dearborn Observatory* possesses a fine telescope. The *Academy of Sciences* has a collection of 38,000 specimens in the various departments of natural history. The *Historical Society Library* numbers 85,000 bound and unbound books and pamphlets. The library of the *Young Men's Association* contains about 10,000 volumes; that of the *Law Institute* numbers over 8000 volumes.

The charitable and benevolent institutions are numerous and well managed. The principal are the *United States Marine Hospital*; the *Cook County Hospital*; the *Magdalen Asylum*; the *Protestant Orphan Asylum*; the *Home for the Friendless*; *St. Joseph's* (male) and *St. Mary's* (female) orphan asylums; and the *Soldiers' Home*.

The city contains about 5 theatres, and a number of concert and lecture halls, and second-class places of amusement.

The cemeteries are 12 in number. Graceland, Rose Hill, Calvary, and Oakwoods are the principal. They are all situated beyond the city limits.

The city contains a number of handsome public squares. The principal of these are the Esplanade or Lake Park, and Dearborn, Union, Jefferson, and Lincoln Parks. With the exception of the last, these contain from 1 to 5 acres each. Lincoln Park embraces an area of 60 acres, fronting on the lake, and will eventually be the handsomest pleasure-ground in the West.

The hotels of Chicago are among the best in the country, including four or five first-class establishments, and several inferior houses. The *Grand Pacific*, *Sherman*, *Palmer*, and *Briggs' Houses* are the leading establishments.

The city is supplied with an efficient police force and steam fire department, a police and fire alarm telegraph, and is governed by a Mayor and Council elected by the people. In 1870, the population was 298,977.

The position of Chicago on the lake and its connections by railway with the rest of the Union have made it one of the most important places in America. Possessing now one of the best harbors on the great chain of lakes, it controls a large share of the enormous trade of those inland seas, and its water communication with the Gulf of Mexico is made sure by means of the Michigan and Illinois Canal, which is so constructed as to turn the current of the Chicago River into the navigable portion of the Illinois River. This canal is being deepened so as to admit the passage of steamers from the Illinois to Chicago and the lakes. Fifteen lines of railway centre here, and afford rapid and direct communication with all parts of the Union. Lines of steamships ply between Chicago and the various ports on Lakes Michigan, Huron, and Superior. Some idea of the lake trade of Chicago may be gained from the following statement published by the Custom House authorities of the port. The statement is for the year 1870:

During the months of April, May, June, July, August, September, October and November, the following number of vessels entered and cleared the port of Chicago, and those of the other cities mentioned :

	Entered.	Cleared.
Chicago.....	12,546	12,358
New York.....	5757	6153
Philadelphia.....	2098	1698
Baltimore.....	1736	1866
New Orleans.....	1148	1352
San Francisco.....	468	499
Mobile.....	456	408
Savannah.....	596	610
Entered at Chicago during the eight months of navigation...	12,546	
Entered at other ports during the same time.....	12,259	
Chicago's excess.....		287
Average tonnage of vessels entered at Chicago.....		239,921
Average tonnage of vessels entered at New York.....		599,661

Chicago is the largest interior grain market in the world. In 1838, the first shipment of wheat was made, and consisted of 78 bushels. In 1867, the total receipts of grain and flour were as follows: 1,814,236 barrels of flour; 13,090,868 bushels of wheat; 23,018,827 bushels of corn; 10,988,617 bushels of oats; 1,306,204 bushels of rye; 2,246,446 bushels of barley; in all, equal to 59,722,142 bushels of grain, the heaviest amount received in any one year.

The grain elevators of Chicago are among its greatest curiosities. There are about 17 in all, possessing an aggregate capacity of 10,055,000 bushels. An English traveller thus describes them :

“An elevator is as ugly a monster as has been yet produced. In uncouthness of form it outdoes those obsolete old brutes who used to roam about the semi-aqueous world, and live a most uncomfortable life with their great hungering stomachs and huge unsatisfied maws. The elevator itself consists of a big moveable trunk—moveable as is that of an elephant, but not pliable, and less graceful even than an elephant's. This is attached to a huge granary or barn; but in order to give altitude within the barn for the necessary moving up and down of this trunk—seeing that it cannot be curled gracefully to its purposes as the elephant's is curled—there is an awkward box erected on the roof of the barn, giving some twenty feet of additional height, up into which the elevator can be thrust. It will be understood, then, that this big moveable trunk, the head of which, when it is at rest, is thrust up into the box on the roof, is made to slant down in an oblique direction from the building to the river; for the ele-



SCENE ON LAKE STREET.

vator is an amphibious institution, and flourishes only on the banks of navigable waters. When its head is ensconced within its box, and the beast of prey is thus nearly hidden within the building, the unsuspecting vessel is brought up within reach of the creature's trunk, and down it comes, like a mosquito's proboscis, right through the deck, in at the open aperture of the hold, and so into the very vitals and bowels of the ship. When there, it goes to work upon its food with a greed and an avidity that is disgusting to a beholder of any taste or imagination. And now I must explain the anatomical arrangement by which the elevator still devours and continues to devour till the corn within its reach has all been swallowed, masticated, and digested. Its long trunk, as seen slanting down from out of the building across the wharf and into the ship, is a mere wooden pipe; but this pipe is divided within. It has two departments; and as the grain-bearing troughs pass up the one on a pliable band, they pass empty down the other. The system, therefore, is that of an ordinary dredging machine; only that corp and not mud is taken away, and that the buckets or troughs are hidden from sight. Below, within the

stomach of the poor bark, three or four laborers are at work, helping to feed the elevator. They shovel the corn up toward its maw, so that at every swallow he should take in all that he can hold. Thus the troughs, as they ascend, are kept full, and when they reach the upper building they empty themselves into a shoot, over which a porter stands guard, moderating the shoot by a door, which the weight of his finger can open and close. Through this doorway the corn runs into a measure, and is weighed. By measures of forty bushels each, the tale is kept. There stands the apparatus, with the figures plainly marked, over against the porter's eye; and as the sum mounts nearly up to forty bushels he closes the door till the grains run thinly through, hardly a handful at a time, so that the balance is exactly struck. Then the teller standing by marks down his figure, and the record is made. The exact porter touches the string of another door, and the forty bushels of corn run out at the bottom of the measure, disappear down another shoot, slanting also toward the water, and deposit themselves in the canal boat. The transit of the bushels of corn from the larger vessel to the smaller will have taken less than a minute, and the cost of that transit will have been—a farthing.

“But I have spoken of the rivers of wheat, and I must explain what are those rivers. In the working of the elevator, which I have just attempted to describe, the two vessels were supposed to be lying at the same wharf, on the same side of the building, in the same water, the smaller vessel inside the larger one. When this is the case, the corn runs direct from the weighing measure into the shoot that communicates with the canal boat. But there is not room or time for confining the work to one side of the building. There is water on both sides, and the corn or wheat is elevated on the one side, and reshipped on the other. To effect this, the corn is carried across the breadth of the building; but, nevertheless, it is never handled or moved in its direction on trucks or carriages requiring the use of men's muscles for its motion. Across the floor of the building are two gutters, or channels, and through these small troughs on a pliable band circulate very quickly. They which run one way, in one channel, are laden; they which run by the other channel are empty. The corn pours itself into these, and they again pour it into the shoot which commands the other water. And thus rivers of corn are running through these buildings night and day. The secret of all the motion and arrangement consists, of course, in the elevation. The corn is lifted up; and when lifted up, can move itself and arrange itself, and weigh itself, and load itself.”

Next to its trade in grain is the lumber trade of Chicago; the city being the most important lumber market in the United States. In 1867, there were received here 861,912,900 feet of lumber, 432,261,000 shingles, and 143,847,000 pieces of laths.

Chicago ranks next to New York as a beef and cattle market. In 1864, its receipts were 336,627 head. As a beef-packing point it is unsurpassed by any city on the continent, its annual packing amounting to about 100,000 head.

As a pork-packing point it is the first in the Union, having surpassed Cincinnati some years ago. In 1864-5, 760,514 hogs were killed and packed here. In the same year, the total receipts of hogs at Chicago amounted to 1,410,320. The pork houses of Chicago are models of their kind, and are richly worth visiting. The pork house is usually a substantial structure of brick, of about 180 by 160 feet on the ground floor, with a large and commodious lard house adjoining, but separated from it by a heavy brick wall and iron doors to prevent the steam and vapor from entering the main building. The pork house is three stories high, with a strong, double, flat roof, and this roof is arranged into convenient pens, the whole being capable of containing 4000 hogs at once. The lower floor is used for curing and storing the meat, the second for packing and shipping, and the third for cooking and cutting up the hogs.

As soon as the hogs arrive at the pork house, they are driven up an inclined plane to the pens at the top of the building. They are allowed to remain there two nights and a day. By this arrangement they are given an abundance of pure, fresh air, and are brought to the best possible sanitary condition. If they were killed immediately after hard exercise and excitement, as in driving them to the slaughter pens, the flesh would be in a high state of fever, the marrow in a semi-fluid condition, and this would produce what is known as foul joints, and the meat would in a short time become tainted and eventually unfit for use.

When the time for killing arrives, twenty hogs are driven into a pen with a fine grated floor. A man enters the pen, and with a long hammer deals each hog a blow on the forehead between the eyes, which fells him to the floor. He is followed by another man, who cuts the throat of each animal with a sharp knife, the blood flowing through the grated floor into gutters which conduct it to a large tank outside the building. Another lot of hogs is driven into an adjoining pen, and the same process gone through with.

When the hogs have been bled sufficiently, they are, one at a time, slid down an inclined plane into a large scalding tub or vat, in which the water is kept at a regular temperature by steam coils. Here they are floated along slowly until they reach the table at the opposite end, where they are taken out by a very simple contrivance worked by one man. After being placed upon the table, they are passed along through the hands of different men, each of whom has stated duties to perform. The first two take from the back in an instant all the bristles suitable for the brushmaker or cobbler, and deposit them in barrels for removal; eight or ten pairs more of men strip the hog of its coat, and clean it, when the gambrel stick is put into it, and it is swung to an overhead railway, and thoroughly drenched with cold water to remove all impurities. It is then opened and the intestines removed, after which it is again drenched with cold water, and the back bone is split down, and the leaf lard loosened. It is then taken to the cooling room, and allowed to remain there two days, in which time all animal heat disappears.

The hog is then cut up. One blow from an immense cleaver severs the head from the body. Another man cuts away the hind-parts containing the hams, and the remainder of the hog is cut up according to the requirements of the market, the leaf lard being taken away by hand. So rapidly is the cutting process performed, that two expert men can easily cut up over 2000 hogs in eight hours, though the day's work is generally confined to about 1200 head.

The process is completed in the curing room. Here a solution of saltpetre is liberally applied to all the green meat, except the shoulders; and, while wet, it is covered with salt, and packed away in tiers to dry. In three weeks it is handled again; receives a second dressing of salt, and is allowed to stand seven days more, when it is cured, and ready for packing.

After the small intestines are removed from the hog, they are taken by men and boys, and all the fat is separated from them and placed in large vats of water to wash it clean, going through two waters, when it is ready to be put into the lard tank.

The lard house is, like the main building, three stories in height. In the second story are seven large iron tanks, extending up through the ceiling into the third story, where they are each provided with an opening used for filling them. In these tanks all the fatty substances used for making lard are placed until the vessels are full. The mass is then subjected to a jet of steam from the boilers, of a

pressure of fifteen pounds to the square inch. Each tank is provided with a safety valve, so that on reaching the maximum pressure allowed the steam passes off, causing a continuous flow of steam through the whole mass. By this process every particle of lard is set free from the mass.

After the steam has been kept on for a certain time, a faucet is opened midway of the tank, or about where the lard and water meet, and the former is drawn off into an immense clarifying vessel, in which, on being subjected to a heat of 300 degrees Fahrenheit, it is thoroughly cleared of all impurities, a part rising to the top of the lard, where it is skimmed off, and the rest settling at the bottom, from which it is drained off by a faucet. The remainder is the purest and sweetest lard that can be made, being entirely free from any unpleasant odor, and as agreeable to the taste as new, unsalted butter.

The refuse material is used in various ways, nothing that can be put to any conceivable use being thrown away.

The salt trade of Chicago is also important, varying from 650,000 to 775,000 barrels annually.

In 1867, there were 7500 buildings erected in Chicago, at a cost of \$7,500,000.

The name of the city is said to have been derived as follows: Along the shores of the river the wild onion was found in great abundance, to which the Indians gave the name *Chi-ka-jo*, from which the word Chicago is derived. The first white men to visit the spot were the early French Jesuit missionaries and fur traders. Father Marquette visited it in 1673, and Perrot about the year 1770. At that time, this territory was in possession of the Miami Indians, but subsequently the Potawatomies crowded the Miamis back, and became the sole possessors, until the year 1795, when they became parties to a treaty with Wayne, by which a tract of land, six miles square, at the mouth of the Chicago River, was ceded to the United States—the first extinction of Indian title to the land on which Chicago is built. In 1804, Fort Dearborn was built by the United States on the point south of the river, near its mouth. In 1812, the Government, becoming apprehensive that a fort so far advanced from the frontiers could not be successfully held against the British and their allies, ordered its evacuation. On the 12th of August, Captain Heald, the commandant, marched out of the fort with his little garrison, consisting of about 75 persons in all, and commenced his withdrawal along the lake shore. When he had gotten about two miles from the fort he was attacked

by the Potawatomie Indians, and 52 persons, viz., 12 militia, 26 regulars, 2 women and 12 children, were killed and wounded. The rest succeeded in escaping. The Indians destroyed the fort, but it was rebuilt in 1816, under Captain Bradley. The fort was held as a military post until 1837, when the Indians having left the country, it was abandoned. In 1831, Chicago contained a few log cabins which had sprung up around the fort, and about a dozen families besides the officers and soldiers in Fort Dearborn. On the 26th of September, 1833, the town was laid out, and on the 4th of March, 1837, received its first charter. At that time, it contained 4470 inhabitants. It remained stationary until about 1840, when it began its remarkable career of prosperity. The following table will show its rapid growth during the past thirty years :

Year.	Population.
1840,	4853
1850,	29,963
1860,	109,420
1870,	298,977

On the evening of Saturday, October 8th, 1871, a fire broke out in a stable on De Koven street, near the river, on the west side of the city. It was caused by the overturning of a kerosene lamp by the kick of a cow. The flames spread rapidly, and were fanned furiously by a high wind. The quarter in which the fire originated being of wood, there was everything to favor the progress of the conflagration, which soon defied all efforts to control it. It raged until after midnight on the 9th, and destroyed the entire quarter between the lake and the north branch of the Chicago river, and the larger and more important part of the district lying between the lake and the south branch of the river, involving in the general ruin the entire business quarter, and a large portion of the residence section. It was the most disastrous conflagration of modern times. The total area burned over, including streets, was 2124 acres, or very nearly three and one-third square miles. The number of buildings destroyed was 17,450; about 98,500 persons were rendered homeless; and 250 persons died during the conflagration. The loss occasioned by the fire amounted to \$196,000,000 as nearly as can be ascertained. The *exact* loss will probably never be known.

The people of Chicago met their crushing disaster with a manly firmness that excited the admiration of the civilized world. The

ashes of their city were scarcely cold when they set to work to rebuild it, and to win back the prosperity and comfort of which they had been so suddenly deprived. In the short space of two years they succeeded in almost obliterating the traces of the fire. New and splendid edifices were erected, and the city has assumed its old aspect, with this difference,—that the new buildings are generally of a handsomer and more substantial character than the old ones. A stranger visiting the city at present would scarcely believe that four years ago the busy, teeming city, with its splendid streets and superb edifices, was a blackened ruin. The city has profited by the lesson of the fire, and wooden edifices are disappearing and giving place to structures of brick, stone, and iron. The energy and enterprise which surmounted the great loss of 1871, and won back for Chicago the prosperity she had so fairly earned, must ever rank among the proudest achievements of the American people, or of the human race.

The new city was visited, in 1874, by an extensive fire, which would have been regarded as a great disaster, but for the more serious calamity of 1871.

QUINCY,

In Adams county, is the second city of the State. It is situated on the eastern or left bank of the Mississippi, 160 miles above St. Louis, 268 miles southwest of Chicago, and 109 miles west of Springfield. The city is built on a limestone bluff, 125 feet above the river, of which it commands beautiful and extensive views. It is well built, and contains a number of handsome edifices. Some of the residences are tasteful and elegant. It is lighted with gas and supplied with water. It contains several excellent public and private schools, 24 churches, 10 public halls, a court house, and 5 newspaper offices. Two of these journals are printed in the German language, a large proportion of the inhabitants being of German origin. The city is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 24,052.

Quincy is actively engaged in the Mississippi River trade, and the landing is usually thronged with steamboats. The city is the terminus of two lines of railway, which connect it with all parts of the West on both sides of the Mississippi. The surrounding country is an extensive, fertile, and highly cultivated prairie; and of this region Quincy is the principal market. The city is to a limited extent engaged in manufactures; iron, tobacco, lumber, flour, ma-



QUINCY.

chinery and carriages being the principal articles produced. About 100,000 hogs are packed here annually.

Quincy was settled about the year 1822, the first inhabitant being John Wood, of the State of New York. In 1825, the town was laid out by order of the county court. It received its name on the day that John *Quincy* Adams was inaugurated President of the United States. The Indians continued in the vicinity as late as 1832, when the Black Hawk War occurred. At the time of the first settlement of the town, there were but three white inhabitants within the limits of the present county of Adams. These were obliged to go to Atlas, 40 miles distant, where there was a horse-mill, in order to have their corn meal ground, this being their principal breadstuff.

GALENA,

In Jo Daviess county, is an important city. It is situated on Fevre River, 6 miles from its entrance into the Mississippi, 250 miles north-by-west of Springfield, 160 miles west-northwest of Chicago,

1651 miles above New Orleans, and 450 miles above St. Louis. "The river, sometimes called the Galena, on whose rocky shelf this town is built, is more properly an arm of the Mississippi River, sitting up between lofty bluffs, around whose base it winds with picturesque effect. The streets rise one above another, and communicate with each other by flights of steps, so that the houses on the higher streets are perched like an eagle's eyrie, overlooking the rest, and commanding an extensive prospect. Pleasant churches meet the eye on the first ledge or terrace above the levee, and private residences wearing an aspect of neatness and comfort adorn each successive height." The city is well paved, and the houses are built mostly of brick. It is lighted with gas, and contains, beside the county buildings, a number of churches and public schools, and several newspaper offices. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 7019.

Galena is one of the oldest and most interesting towns in the State, but owes its importance entirely to the great lead mines by which it is surrounded in every direction. Considerable quantities of copper are found in connection with the lead. It is estimated that these mines are capable of yielding 150,000,000 pounds annually for an indefinite period in the future. Mineral from some eight or ten mining localities in Wisconsin is sent to Galena for shipment down the Mississippi, there being regular steamboat communication between Galena and the river towns. The city is connected with all points east and west by railway.

The lead mines lie in every direction around the city. The country is hilly, and has a desolate and bleak appearance. A visitor thus describes it:

"Every hill is spotted with little mounds of yellow earth, and is as full of holes as a worm-eaten cheese. Some winding road at length brings you to the top of one of these bare, bleak hills, and to a larger mound of the same yellowish earth, with which the whole country in sight is mottled. On the top of this mound of earth stands a windlass, and a man is winding up tubs full of dirt and rock, which continually increase the pile under his feet. Beneath him, forty, fifty, a hundred feet under ground is the miner. As we look around on every ridge, see the windlass-men, and know that beneath each one a smithy-faced miner is burrowing by the light of a dim candle, let us descend into the mines and see the miners at their work. The windlass-man makes a loop in the end of the rope, into which you put one

foot, and, clasping, at the same time, the rope with one hand, slowly you begin to go down; down, it grows darker and darker; a damp, grave-like smell comes up from below, and you grow dizzy with the continual whirling around, until, when you reach the bottom and look up at the one small spot of daylight through which you came down, you start with alarm as the great mass of rocks and earth over your head seem to be swaying and tumbling in. You draw your breath a little more freely, however, when you perceive that it was only your own dizziness, or the scudding of clouds across the one spot of visible sky, and you take courage to look about you. Two or three dark little passages, from four to six feet high, and about three feet wide, lead off into the murky recesses of the mine; these are called, in mining parlance, drifts. You listen a little while, and there is a dull '*thud! thud!*' comes from each one, and tells of something alive away off in the gloom, and, candle in hand, you start in search of it. You eye the rocky walls and roof uneasily as, half bent, you thread the narrow passage, until, on turning some angle in the drift, you catch a glimpse of the miner, he looks small and dark, and mole-like, as on his knees, and pick in hand, he is prying from a perpendicular crevice in the rock, a lump of mineral as large as his head, and which, by the light of his dim candle, flashes and gleams like a huge carbuncle; or, perhaps, it is a horizontal sheet or vein of mineral that presents its edge to the miner; it is imbedded in the solid rock, which must be picked and blasted down to get at the mineral. He strikes the rock with his pick, and it rings as though he had struck an anvil. You cannot conceive how, with that strip of gleaming metal, seeming like a magician's wand, to beckon him on and on, he could gnaw, as it were, his narrow way for hundreds of feet through the rock. But large, indeed, you think, must be his organ of hope, and resolute his perseverance, to do it with no such glittering prize in sight. Yet such is often the case, and many a miner has toiled for years, and in the whole time has discovered scarcely enough mineral to pay for the powder used. Hope, however, in the breast of the miner, has as many lives as a cat, and on no day, in all his toilsome years, could you go down into his dark and crooked hole, a hundred feet from grass and sunshine, but he would tell you that he was '*close to it now,*' in a few days he hoped to strike a lode (pronounced among miners as though it was spelled *lead*), and so a little longer and a little longer, and his life of toil wears away, while his work holds him with a fascination equalled only by a gambler's passion for his cards. Lodes or

veins of mineral in the same vicinity run in the general direction. Those in the vicinity of Galena, run east and west. The crevice which contains the mineral, is usually perpendicular, and from 1 to 20 feet in width, extending from the cap rock, or the first solid rock above the mineral, to uncertain depths below, and is filled with large, loose rocks, and a peculiar red dirt, in which are imbedded masses of mineral. These masses are made up cubes, like those formed of crystallization, and many of them as geometrically correct as could be made with a compass and square. Before the mineral is broken, it is of the dull blue color of lead, but when broken, glistens like silver. Sometimes caves are broken into, whose roofs are frosted over with calcareous spar, as pure and white as the frost upon the window-pane in winter, and from dark crevices in the floor comes up the gurgling of streams that never saw the sun. The life of a miner is a dark and lonesome one. His drift is narrow, and will not admit of two abreast; therefore, there is but little conversation, and no jokes are bandied about from mouth to mouth by fellow-laborers. The alternations of hope and disappointment give, in the course of years, a subdued expression to his countenance. There are no certain indications by which the miner can determine the existence of a vein of mineral without sinking a shaft. Several methods are resorted to, however. The linear arrangement of any number of trees that are a little larger than the generality of their neighbors, is considered an indication of an opening underground corresponding to their arrangement. Depressions in the general surface are also favorable signs, and among the older miners there are yet some believers in the mystic power of witch-hazel and the divining-rod. In the largest number of cases, however, but little attention is paid to signs other than to have continuous ground—that is, to dig on the skirts of a ridge that is of good width on top, so that any vein that might be discovered would not run out too quickly on the other side of the ridge. On such ground the usual method of search is by suckering, as it is called. The miner digs a dozen or more holes, about 6 feet deep, and within a stone's throw of each other, and in some one of these he is likely to find a few pieces of mineral, the dip of certain strata of clay then indicates the direction in which he is to continue the search, in which, if he is so successful as to strike a *lode*, his fortune is made; in the other event, he is only the more certain that the *lucky day* is not far off."

The city derives its name from the French word signifying a *lead mine*. It was settled in 1826, and was then about 300 miles from the settlements. Previous to the war it was the home of President Grant.

He was at that time an unknown man, and was a clerk in the leather house of "J. R. Grant." "He was courteous and popular with all who met him on business, but never sought acquaintances. He was a very poor salesman, could not chaffer, and did not always know the price of an article." While residing there, he once declared he would like to be mayor of Galena, as he would then cause the sidewalk from his house to the business quarter of the town to be properly laid. His remark was laughed at at the time, but was remembered in after years. He was residing in Galena at the commencement of the civil war.

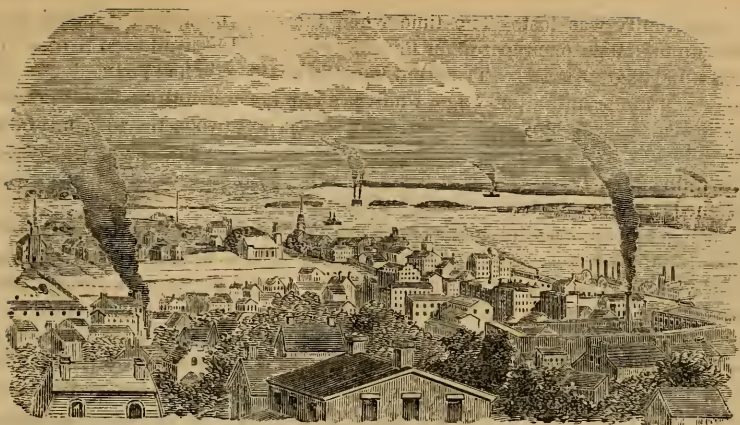
In the summer of 1865, Grant returned to Galena on a brief visit. He had left it an unknown man; he returned to it one of the most noted personages in the world, the conqueror in the most formidable struggle of the century. His biographer thus describes his reception: "As he neared Galena, the enthusiasm was unbounded. When the train arrived there, cannon were booming, bands playing, flags flying, and thousands of human throats lustily cheering. . . . An arch spanned one street, bearing the inscription wreathed with flowers, 'General, *the sidewalk is built.*' The people had presented to him a completely furnished house—costing sixteen thousand dollars—first building a new sidewalk half a mile to the station."

ALTON,

In Madison county, is a prominent city. It is situated on the left or east bank of the Mississippi River, 3 miles above the mouth of the Missouri River, 21 miles above St. Louis, 20 miles below the mouth of the Illinois, 76 miles southwest of Springfield, and 257 miles southwest of Chicago.

"The site of the city is quite uneven and broken, with high stony bluffs, and in front of it the Mississippi runs almost a due course from east to west." The city is one of the handsomest in the State, and is well built. It contains a splendid City Hall, 10 churches, one of which (the Cathedral) is a magnificent structure, 4 newspaper offices, and a number of flourishing public and private schools. *Shurtleff College* and the *Monticello Female Seminary* are located in the vicinity. The city is lighted with gas, and is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 8665.

Alton is one of the principal towns on the Mississippi, and is actively engaged in the trade of that river and of the Missouri. It has direct railway communication with Chicago and Terre Haute, Indiana. It is engaged in manufactures to a considerable extent.



ALTON.

Alton was first settled about the year 1808. The first settlers were much exposed to the savages, and lived in block houses for their mutual protection. The town was laid out about the year 1818. It grew slowly until 1832, when the Penitentiary of the State was located here. This gave a considerable impetus to Alton. The Penitentiary has since been removed to Joliet. In 1837, Alton was incorporated as a city.

MISCELLANIES.

GREAT CONFLAGRATION IN CHICAGO.

The following account of the origin and progress of the fire is taken from *Harper's Weekly* :

The fire had an ignoble beginning. Late on Sunday evening, October 8th, 1871, a woman went into a stable on Dekoven street, near the river, on the west side, to milk a cow, carrying with her a kerosene lamp. This was kicked over by the cow, and the burning fluid scattered among the hay and straw. A single fire-extinguisher on the premises, or the immediate application of water, would have confined the flames to the quarter where the fire began ; but the engines were waited for, and when they arrived the firemen, stupefied by their exposure and exertions at a large fire the previous night, worked with less than their usual readiness and skill. The flames soon obtained headway. A high wind fanned them into fury, and they became uncontrollable. They sprang from house to house, and from square to square, until the district burned over the day before was reached. In the other direction the flames crossed the river north of Twelfth street to the south side, and threatened the business portion of the city.

The full extent of the danger was then for the first time realized ; the firemen, already worn out and exhausted, worked like heroes, and the Mayor and other officials bestirred themselves to take measures for the protection of the city. But

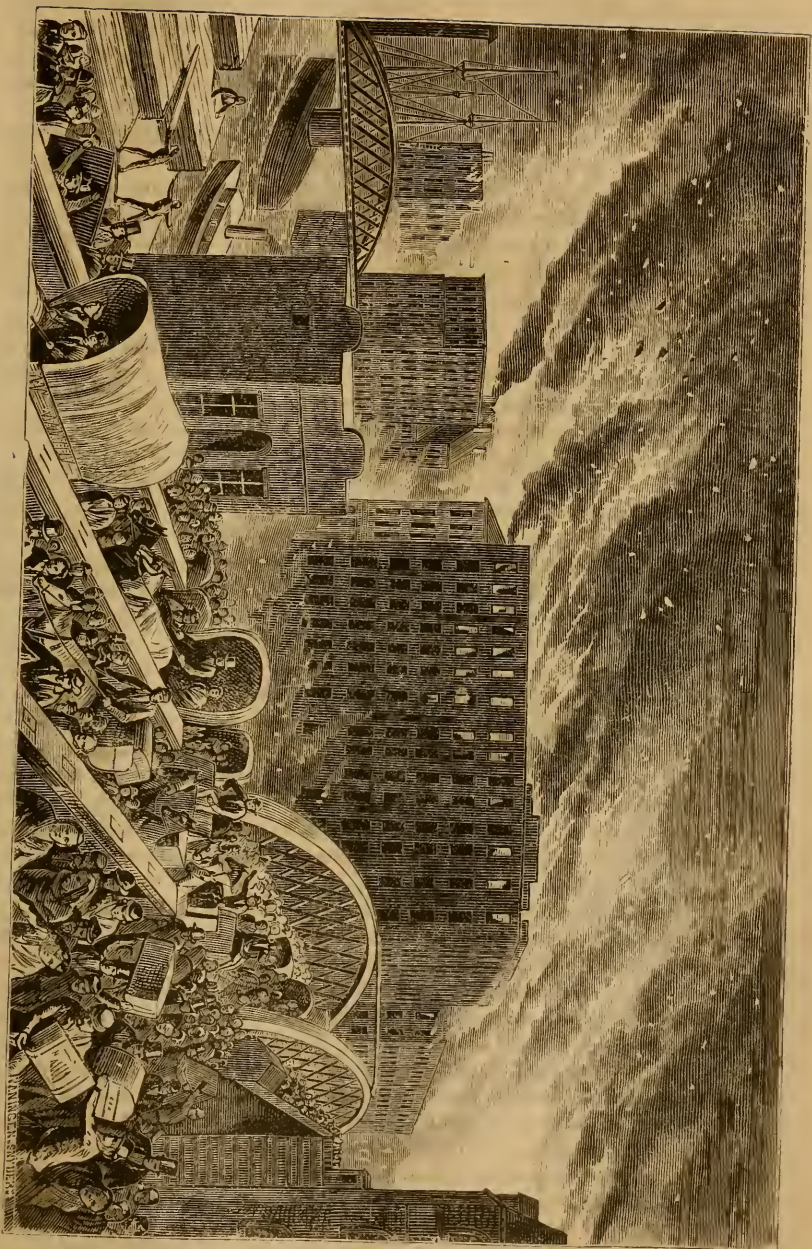
the opportunity was lost. The time when thorough organization could have blown up buildings, or prepared for the emergency, had been allowed to pass, and it was now a fight for life. The wind blowing a stiff gale had possession of the flames, and the beautiful buildings, Chicago's glory, lay before them. Harrison, Van Buren, Adams, Monroe, and Madison streets were soon reached, the intervening blocks from the river to Dearborn street, on the east, being consumed; and within an incredibly short space of time nearly a mile of brick blocks was consumed, as if by magic.

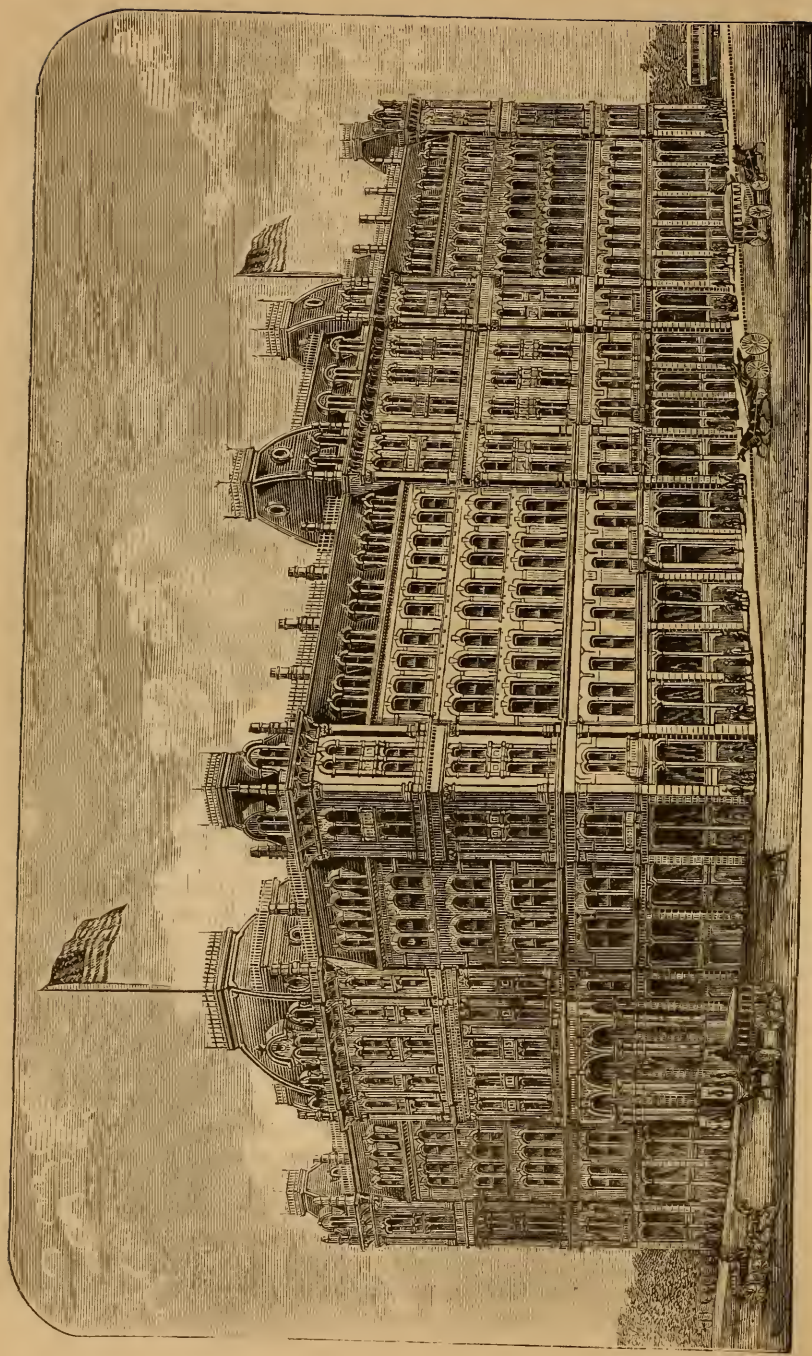
It being Sunday evening, this part of the city was nearly deserted. Proprietors and employés were at home, utterly unconscious of what was taking place. Those who saw the light of this fire supposed it was the remains of Saturday night's fire, and, having confidence in the Fire Department, were unconcerned; but between 11 and 12 o'clock, a rumor got abroad that the fire was in the business portion of the city. Then everybody was on the alert, and from the southern part of the city a stream of people poured toward the scene of the conflagration. By this time nearly all the public buildings were either consumed or in flames. The air was filled with burning brands, which, carried north and east by the wind, kindled new fires wherever they fell. The fire-engines were powerless. The streams of water appeared to dry up the moment they touched the flames. An attempt was made to blow up the buildings; but this availed little, as the high wind carried the flaming brands far across the space thus cleared away.

To add to the horrors of the scene, the wooden pavements took fire, driving the firemen from stations where their efforts might have been continued for many precious minutes. Nothing could long resist the terrible heat of the flames. They seemed to strike right through the most solid walls. Buildings supposed to be fire-proof burned like tinder, and crumbled to pieces like charred paper. Block after block was consumed. The red hot coal shot higher and higher, and the flames spread further and further, until that part of the city lying north of Lake street was a vast sea of fire. At one time the people were so hemmed in by the circle of flame that thousands were in danger of perishing, and escaped only by a precipitate retreat. The hotels were hurriedly emptied of their guests, who swarmed into the streets with whatever they could carry away. Those who could do so, made their way to the yet unburned bridges, and escaped across the river, while others fled to the lake shore, and found a safe line of retreat to the southern part of the city. This, it must be borne in mind, was in the night-time, but the city and the country and lake for miles around were illuminated with a lurid light.

When morning dawned at length, there was but one block of buildings left in what the day before had been the most flourishing business part of the city. The magnificent Court House, the Board of Trade building, the Sherman House, and other hotels, and hundreds of stores and offices, were in ruins. The *Tribune* block alone remained unharmed. A wide space had been burned around it, and its safety was supposed to be assured. A patrol of men, under Mr. Samuel Medill, swept off live coals and put out fires in the side walls; and another patrol, under the direction of the Hon. Joseph Medill, watched the roofs. Up to 4 o'clock in the morning, writes the correspondent of the *World*, the reporters had sent in detailed accounts of the fire. At 5 o'clock the forms were sent down. In ten minutes the two eight-cylinders in the press-room would have been throwing off the morning paper. Then the front basement was discovered to be on fire. The plug on the corner was tapped, but there was no water. The conflagration which had for some time been raging on the north side had destroyed

CHICAGO IN FLAMES.





SIX HUNDRED ROOMS.

GRAND PACIFIC HOTEL: CHICAGO.

COVERS AN ENTIRE BLOCK.

the Water-works. There was not a drop of water in the city. The pressmen were driven from their presses. The attachés of the office said good-by to the handsomest newspaper office in the Western country, and tearfully withdrew to a place of safety. In a very short time the office was enveloped in fire, and by 10 o'clock the whole block was a mass of blackened ruins. M'Vickar's fine theatre, the Crosby Opera House, which was to have been reopened Monday evening, the office of the Pullman Car Company, the great Union Railroad Depot at the foot of Lake street, all the banks, and many of the finest churches in the city had already been destroyed.

By the destruction of the Water-works, on the north side of the river, early in the day, the efficiency of the Fire Department was fatally impaired. It was impossible, owing to the smoke and fire, to get to the lake or river. So intense was the heat that the sluggish river seemed to boil, and clouds of steam rose from its surface to mingle with the smoke from the flames.

Early in the forenoon of Monday, it became evident that nothing could save the city, and all the streets leading southward and westward from the burning quarter were crowded with men, women, and children, all flying for life, and attempting to save something from the general wreck. The number is vaguely estimated at 75,000. Every sort of vehicle was pressed into service. With the selfishness which on such occasions comes uppermost in some natures, the truckmen charged enormous prices for transporting trunks, boxes, and packages, and turned a deaf ear to all who could not pay the money down. Thousands of persons, inextricably commingled with horses and vehicles, poor people of all colors and shades, and of every nationality, mad with excitement, struggled with each other to get away. Many were trampled under foot. Men and women were loaded with bundles, to whose skirts children were clinging, half-dressed and barefooted, all seeking a place of safety. Hours afterward these people might have been seen in vacant lots, or on the streets far out in the suburbs, stretched in the dust.

Many pitiful sights were witnessed in the course of this terrible scramble for life. There were mothers and fathers, who, leaving children in places of supposed safety, had gone to save clothing and valuables from their burning houses, and returned to find their little ones swept away, and were seeking them in vain among the maddened crowd. There were men and women whom terror had made insane.

Among the saddest incidents of this calamity was the appearance in the streets of hundreds of men and boys in a state of beastly drunkenness. In the North Division the liquor saloons were broken open, and their contents flung into the streets, where they were eagerly seized upon by the maddened crowd, who seem to have felt the same impulse that leads sailors on a sinking ship to drown their terrors in the delirium of intoxication. There can be hardly any doubt that many of these poor wretches found their death in the flames from which they were helpless to escape. Several hundred persons sought refuge on a barge, and were towed out into the lake, where they remained all night. The loss of life cannot yet be definitely ascertained, but will probably reach several hundred.

Thus the dreadful day wore on, and night drew near. The principal business portion of the city, and the North Division, from the river to Lincoln Park, had been swept by the flames, comprising an area of more than 5 square miles. As the awful day drew to its close, thousands of anxious eyes watched the clouds of smoke that hung over the scene of desolation, dreading lest a change of wind might drive the flames upon that portion of the city which was still unburned, and fervent were the prayers for rain.

No pen can describe the horrors of the night. A hundred thousand people encamped in the fields and in Lincoln Park. The weather was tempestuous and cold. A heavy rain the day previous had drenched the turf, which the trampling feet of the thousands of fugitives from the fire had soon beaten into a morass. And there, on the bleak prairie, shelterless and half-naked, delicate women slept with their babes clasped to their breasts, or moaned in unspeakable anguish throughout the dreadful night, longing for day and yet dreading its dawn. What hearts were broken during that awful watch in cold, and darkness, and terror, what lives of lingering sickness and pain prepared, can never be known. It would seem as if such distress might soften the most obdurate heart; yet even there armed patrols were needed to guard the helpless from robbery and the baser passions of desperate ruffians, who, under cover of the general panic and disorganization, sought to inaugurate a new reign of terror. Houses were broken open and pillaged all over the town. Rape, and arson, and murder were not unfrequent; and it became necessary to form vigilance committees. Fortunately General Sheridan was at his post. The city was placed under martial law, and wretches caught in the act of pillaging or setting fire to buildings—for, incredible as it may seem, men became incendiaries in the midst of the burning town—were executed on the spot.

During the whole of the night of the 9th, the fire continued to burn on the north side; but the wind went down, and shortly after midnight rain commenced falling, and by daylight the flames were under control. Freed from anxiety in regard to the further spreading of the flames, the citizens took measures for the protection of property and for the care of the thousands who were homeless and shelterless. The first night few could be provided with shelter, and the most harrowing scenes were witnessed on every hand. Several children were born into the world in the midst of the storm, only to die. There were invalids of every age and condition of life, who had been taken from their beds and carried where death came to them less swiftly but not less surely than in the fiery flood.

In response to the cry for help that went up from the stricken city, instant and abundant relief was sent from every part of the Union. The General Government sent thousands of tents and army rations. Societies and private citizens sent money, clothing, and provisions. Railroad companies dispatched special trains laden with these gifts. From Canada and from Europe came expressions of sympathy and proffers of assistance. Wherever the news was carried, it awakened the best impulses of human nature.

The spirit and courage exhibited by the business people of Chicago is above all praise. The smoke still hung over their ruined city, when they met and resolved upon measures that would restore its fame and magnificence, and maintain its credit unimpaired. The newspapers, with their accustomed enterprise, immediately resumed publication as best they could, and generous assistance was afforded by the press of other cities, in the shape of type, paper, etc. Temporary buildings were erected in every direction, and in less than a week after the cessation of the fire, hundreds of houses were ready for occupation. The spirit of prostration gave way to one of confidence and hope. Every business man who could hire a shed resumed business. One hundred thousand dollars were subscribed toward rebuilding the Chamber of Commerce, and the work will be commenced at once. With this spirit animating her citizens, Chicago will soon recover from this great calamity, more magnificent and beautiful than she was before the fire.

THE MASSACRE AT CHICAGO.

On the 7th of August, 1812, in the afternoon, Winnemeg, or Catfish, a friendly Indian of the Potawatomie tribe, arrived at Chicago and brought despatches from General Hull, containing the first, and at that time the only intelligence of the declaration of war. General Hull's letter announced the capture of Mackinaw, and directed Captain Heald "to evacuate the fort at Chicago, if practicable, and in that event, to distribute all of the United States property contained in the fort, and the United States factory, or agency, among the Indians in the neighborhood, and repair to Fort Wayne." Winnemeg, having delivered his despatches to Captain Heald, and stated that he was acquainted with the purport of the communication he had brought, urged upon Captain Heald the policy of remaining in the fort, being supplied as they were with ammunition and provisions for a considerable time. In case, however, Captain Heald thought proper to evacuate the place, he urged upon him the propriety of doing so immediately, before the Potawatomies (through whose country they must pass, and who were as yet ignorant of the object of his mission) could collect a force sufficient to oppose them. This advice, though given in great earnestness, was not sufficiently regarded by Captain Heald; who observed that he should evacuate the fort, but having received orders to distribute the public property among the Indians, he did not feel justified in leaving it until he had collected the Potawatomies in its vicinity, and made an equitable distribution among them. Winnemeg then suggested the expediency of marching out, and leaving everything standing; "while the Indians," said he, "are dividing the spoils, the troops will be able to retreat without molestation." This advice was also unheeded, and an order for evacuating the fort was read next morning on parade. Captain Heald, in issuing it, had neglected to consult his junior officers, as it would have been proper for him to have done in such an emergency, and as he probably would have done had there not been some coolness between him and Ensign Ronan.

The lieutenant and ensign, after the promulgation of this order, waited on Captain Heald to learn his intentions; and being apprised, for the first time, of the course he intended to pursue, they remonstrated against it. "We do not," said they to Captain Heald, "believe that our troops can pass in safety through the country of the Potawatomies to Fort Wayne. Although a part of their chiefs were opposed to an attack upon us last autumn, they were actuated by motives of private friendship for some particular individuals, and not from a regard to the Americans in general; and it can hardly be supposed that in the present excited state of feeling among the Indians, those chiefs will be able to influence the whole tribe, now thirsting for vengeance. Besides," said they, "our march must be slow, on account of the women and children. Our force, too, is small. Some of our soldiers are superannuated, and some of them are invalids. We think, therefore, as your orders are discretionary, that we had better fortify ourselves as strongly as possible, and remain where we are. Succor may reach us before we shall be attacked from Mackinaw; and, in case of such an event, we had better fall into the hands of the English than become victims of the savages." Captain Heald replied that his force was inadequate to contend with the Indians, and that he should be censured were he to continue in garrison when the prospect of a safe retreat to Fort Wayne was so apparent. He therefore deemed it advisable to assemble the Indians and distribute the public property among them, and ask of them an escort thither, with the promise of a considerable sum of money to be paid on their safe arrival; adding, that he had perfect confidence in the friendly

professions of the Indians, from whom, as well as from the soldiers, the capture of Mackinaw had studiously been concealed.

From this time forward, the junior officers stood aloof from their commander, and, considering his project as little short of madness, conversed as little upon the subject as possible. Dissatisfaction, however, soon filled the camp; the soldiers began to murmur, and insubordination assumed a threatening aspect.

The savages, in the meantime, became more and more troublesome; entered the fort occasionally in defiance of the sentinels, and even made their way without ceremony into the quarters of its commanding officer. On one occasion, an Indian, taking up a rifle, fired it in the parlor of Captain Heald. Some were of opinion that this was intended as the signal for an attack. The old chiefs at this time passed back and forth among the assembled groups, apparently agitated, and the squaws seemed much excited, as though some terrible calamity was impending. No further manifestations, however, of ill-feeling were exhibited, and the day passed without bloodshed. So infatuated at this time was Captain Heald that he supposed he had wrought a favorable impression upon the savages, and that the little garrison could now march forth in safety.

From the 8th to the 13th of August, the hostility of the Indians was more and more apparent; and the feelings of the garrison, and of those connected with and dependent upon it for their safety, more and more intense. Distrust everywhere at length prevailed, and the want of unanimity among the officers was appalling. Every inmate retired to rest, expecting to be aroused by the war-whoop; and each returning day was regarded by all as another step on the road to massacre.

The Indians from the adjacent villages having at length arrived, a council was held on the 12th of August. It was attended, however, only by Captain Heald on the part of the military; the other officers refused to attend, having previously learned that a massacre was intended. This fact was communicated to Captain Heald; he insisted, however, on their going, and they resolutely persisted in their refusal. When Captain Heald left the fort, they repaired to the blockhouse, which overlooked the ground where the council was in session, and, opening the port-holes, pointed their cannon in its direction. This circumstance and their absence, it is supposed, saved the whites from massacre.

Captain Heald informed the Indians in Council that he would next day distribute among them all the goods in the United States factory, together with the ammunition and provisions with which the garrison was supplied; and desired of them an escort to Fort Wayne, promising them a reward on their arrival thither, in addition to the presents they were about to receive. The savages assented with professions of friendship to all he proposed, and promised all he required.

The council was no sooner dismissed, than several, observing the tone of feeling which prevailed, and anticipating from it no good to the garrison, waited on Captain Heald, in order to open his eyes, if possible, to their condition.

The impolicy of furnishing the Indians with arms and ammunition, to be used against themselves, struck Captain Heald with so much force that he resolved, without consulting his officers, to destroy all not required for immediate use.

On August 13th, the goods in the factory store were distributed among the Indians who had collected near the fort; and in the evening the ammunition, and also the liquor belonging to the garrison, were carried, the former into the sallyport and thrown into the well, and the latter through the south gate, as silently as possible, to the river bank, where the heads of the barrels were knocked in and their contents discharged into the stream.

The Indians, however, suspecting the game, approached as near as possible and witnessed the whole scene. The spare muskets were broken up and thrown into the well, together with bags of shot, flints, and gun screws, and other things; all, however, of but little value.

On the 14th, the despondency of the garrison was for a while dispelled by the arrival of Captain Wells and 15 friendly Miamis. Having heard at Fort Wayne of the order to evacuate Chicago, and knowing the hostile intentions of the Potawatomies, he hastened thither, in order to save, if possible, the little garrison from its doom. Having on his arrival learned that the ammunition had been destroyed, and the provisions distributed among the Indians, he saw there was no alternative. Preparations were therefore made for marching on the morrow.

In the afternoon, a second council was held with the Indians, at which they expressed their resentment at the destruction of the ammunition and liquor in the severest terms. Notwithstanding the precautions which had been observed, the knocking in of the heads of the whiskey barrels had been heard by the Indians, and the river next morning tasted, as some of them expressed it, "like strong grog." Murmurs and threats were everywhere heard, and nothing apparently was wanting but an opportunity for some public manifestation of their resentment.

The morning of the 15th dawned as usual. The sun rose with uncommon splendor, and Lake Michigan "was a sheet of burnished gold."

Early in the day, a message was received in the American camp from To-pee-na-bee, a chief of the St. Joseph's band, informing them that mischief was brewing among the Potawatomies, who had promised them protection.

About 9 o'clock, the troops left the fort with martial music and in military array. Captain Wells, at the head of the Miamis, led the van, his face blackened after the manner of the Indians. The garrison with loaded arms followed, and the wagons with the baggage, the women and children, the sick and the lame, closed the rear. The Potawatomies, about 500 in number, who had promised to escort them in safety to Fort Wayne, leaving a little space, afterward followed. The party in advance took the beach road. They had no sooner arrived at the sand-hills, which separate the prairies from the beach, about a mile and a half from the fort, when the Potawatomies, instead of continuing in the rear of the Americans, left the beach and took to the prairie. The sand-hills, of course, intervened, and presented a barrier between the Potawatomies and the American and Miami line of march. This divergence had scarcely been effected when Captain Wells, who, with the Miamis, was considerably in advance, rode back and exclaimed: "They are about to attack us; form instantly and charge upon them." The words had scarcely been uttered before a volley of musketry from behind the sand-hills was poured in upon them. The troops were brought immediately into a line, and charged up the bank. One man, a veteran of seventy, fell as they ascended. The battle at once became general. The Miamis fled in the outset; their chief rode up to the Potawatomies, charged them with duplicity, and, brandishing his tomahawk, said, "he would be the first to head a party of Americans, and return to punish them for their treachery." He then turned his horse and galloped off in pursuit of his companions, who were then scouring across the prairie, and nothing was seen or heard of them more.

The American troops behaved gallantly. Though few in number, they sold their lives as dearly as possible. They felt, however, as if their time had come, and sought to forget all that was dear on earth.

While the battle was raging, the surgeon, Doctor Voorhes, who was badly

wounded, and whose horse had been shot from under him, approaching Mrs. Helm, the wife of Lieutenant Helm (who was in the action, participating in all its vicissitudes), observed: "Do you think," said he, "they will take our lives? I am badly wounded, but I think not mortally. Perhaps we can purchase safety by offering a large reward. Do you think," continued he, "there is any chance?"—"Doctor Voorhes," replied Mrs. Helm, "let us not waste the few moments which yet remain, in idle or ill-founded hopes. Our fate is inevitable. We must soon appear at the bar of God. Let us make such preparations as are yet in our power."—"Oh," said he, "I cannot die! I am unfit to die! If I had a short time to prepare!—Death!—oh, how awful!"

At this moment Ensign Roman was fighting at a little distance with a tall and portly Indian; the former, mortally wounded, was nearly down, and struggling desperately on one knee. Mrs. Helm, pointing her finger and directing the attention of Doctor Voorhes thither, observed: "Look," said she, "at that young man, he dies like a soldier."

"Yes," said Doctor Voorhes, "but he has no terrors of the future; he is an unbeliever."

A young savage immediately raised his tomahawk to strike Mrs. Helm. She sprang instantly aside, and the blow intended for her head fell upon her shoulder. She thereupon seized him around his neck, and while exerting all her efforts to get possession of his scalping-knife, was seized by another Indian, and dragged forcibly from his grasp.

The latter bore her, struggling and resisting, toward the lake. Notwithstanding, however, the rapidity with which she was hurried along, she recognized, as she passed, the remains of the unfortunate surgeon, stretched lifeless on the prairie.

She was plunged immediately into the water and held there, notwithstanding her resistance, with a forcible hand. She shortly, however, perceived that the intention of her captor was not to drown her, as he held her in a position to keep her head above the water. Thus reassured, she looked at him attentively, and, in spite of his disguise, recognized the "white man's friend." It was Black Partridge.

When the firing had ceased, her preserver bore her from the water and conducted her up the sand-bank. It was a beautiful day in August. The heat, however, of the sun was oppressive, and walking through the sand exposed to its burning rays in her drenched condition, weary and exhausted by efforts beyond her strength, anxious beyond measure to learn the fate of her friends, and alarmed for her own, her situation was one of agony.

The troops having fought with desperation till two-thirds of their number were slain, the remainder, 27 in all, borne down by an overwhelming force and exhausted by efforts hitherto unequalled, at length surrendered. They stipulated, however, for their own safety and for the safety of their remaining women and children. The wounded prisoners, however, in the hurry of the moment, were unfortunately omitted, or rather not particularly mentioned, and were therefore regarded by the Indians as having been excluded.

One of the soldiers' wives, having frequently been told that prisoners taken by the Indians were subjected to tortures worse than death, had from the first expressed a resolution never to be taken, and when a party of savages approached to make her their prisoner, she fought with desperation, and though assured of kind treatment and protection, refused to surrender, and was literally cut in pieces, and her mangled remains left on the field.

After the surrender, one of the baggage-wagons, containing 12 children, was

assailed by a single savage, and the whole number were massacred. All, without distinction of age or sex, fell at once beneath his murderous tomahawk.

Captain Wells, who had as yet escaped unharmed, saw from a distance the whole of this murderous scene, and being apprised of the stipulation, and on seeing it thus violated, exclaimed aloud, so as to be heard by the Potawatomes around him, whose prisoner he then was: "If this be your game, I will kill too!" and, turning his horse's head, instantly started for the Potawatomie camp, where the squaws and Indian children had been left ere the battle began.

He had no sooner started than several Indians followed in his rear, and discharged their rifles at him as he galloped across the prairie. He laid himself flat on the neck of his horse, and was apparently out of their reach when the ball of one of his pursuers took effect, killing his horse and wounding him severely. He was again a prisoner. As the savages came up, Winnemeg and Wa-ban-see, two of their number and both his friends, used all their endeavors in order to save him; they had disengaged him already from his horse, and were supporting him along, when Pee-so-tum, a Potawatomie Indian, drawing a scalping-knife, stabbed him in the back, and thus inflicted a mortal wound. After struggling for a moment, he fell, and breathed his last in the arms of his friends—a victim for those he had sought to save—a sacrifice to his own rash, presumptuous, and perhaps indiscreet intentions.

The battle having ended, and the prisoners being secured, the latter were conducted to the Potawatomie camp near the fort. Here the wife of Wau-bee-nee-mah, an Illinois chief, perceiving the exhausted condition of Mrs. Helm, took a kettle, and dipping up some water from the stream which flowed sluggishly by them, threw into it some maple sugar, and stirring it up with her hand, gave her to drink. "It was," says Mrs. Helm, "the most delicious draught I had ever taken, and her kindness of manner amid so much atrocity touched my heart." Her attention, however, was soon directed to other objects. The fort, after the troops had marched out, became a scene of plunder. The cattle were shot down as they ran at large, and lay dead, or were dying around her. It called up afresh a remark of Ensign Ronan's, made before: "Such," said he, "is to be our fate—to be shot down like brutes."

The wounded prisoners, we have already remarked, were not included in the stipulation made on the battle field, as the *Indians understood it*. On reaching, therefore, the Potawatomie camp, a scene followed which beggars description. A wounded soldier lying on the ground was violently assaulted by an old squaw, infuriated by the loss of friends, or excited by the murderous scenes around her—who, seizing a pitchfork, attacked with demoniac ferocity and deliberately murdered in cold blood the wretched victim, now helpless and exposed to the burning rays of the sun, his wounds already aggravated by its heat, and he writhing in torture. During the succeeding night 5 other wounded prisoners were tomahawked.

Those unwounded remained in the wigwams of their captors. The work of plunder being now completed, the fort next day was set on fire. A fair and equal distribution of all the finery belonging to the garrison had apparently been made, and shawls, ribbons, and feathers were scattered about the camp in great profusion.

Most of the prisoners remained among the Indians until the treaty made in the next year, when they were returned to their friends. Captain Heald and his wife, and Lieutenant Helm and his wife, were ransomed soon after their capture. Their sufferings and perils, however, during their short captivity were most trying

MICHIGAN.

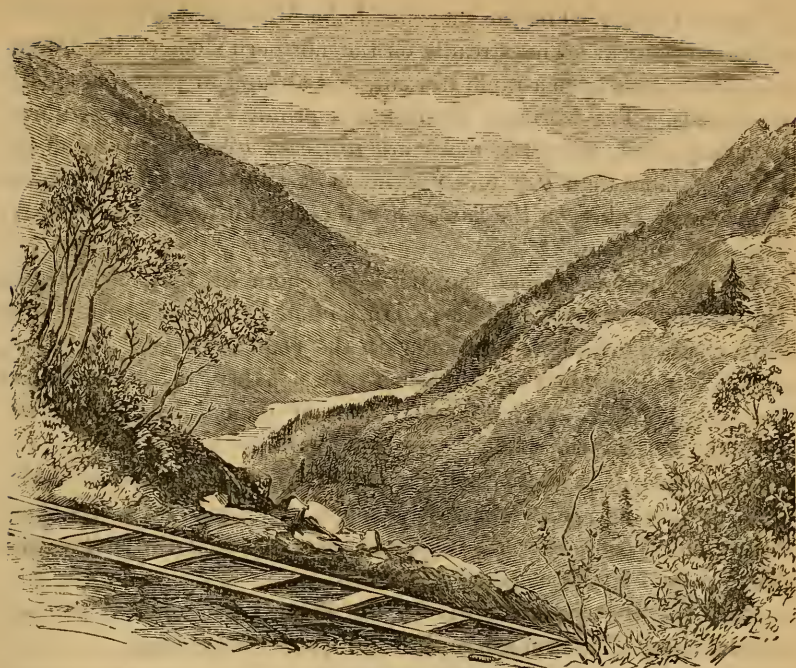
Area,	56,451 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	749,113
Population in 1870,	1,184,059

THE State of Michigan is situated between $41^{\circ} 40'$ and $47^{\circ} 30'$ N. latitude, and $82^{\circ} 12'$ and $90^{\circ} 30'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Canada and Lake Superior, on the east by the River Ste. Marie, Lake Huron, the Lake and River St. Clair, the Detroit River, and Lake Erie, which separate it from Canada, on the south by Ohio, Indiana, and Wisconsin, and on the west by Wisconsin and Lake Michigan.

TOPOGRAPHY.

Lakes Michigan and Huron, and the Straits of Ma-kinaw, divide the State into two unequal peninsulas. The Northern Peninsula is about 320 miles long, from southeast to northwest, with an extreme width of 130 miles. The Southern Peninsula is about 283 miles long, from north to south, and 210 miles wide in its broadest part.

“The Southern Peninsula of Michigan, so interesting in its agricultural and economical aspects, is rather tame in its topographical features, as there is no considerable elevation (compared with the country immediately around it) within its whole extent, though the ridge which divides the waters flowing into Lakes Huron and Erie from those flowing into Lake Michigan, is 300 feet above the level of the lakes, and about 1000 feet above the sea. The country, however, may be generally characterized as a vast undulating plain, seldom becoming rough or broken. There are occasional conical elevations of from 150 to 200 feet in height, but generally much less. The



A WESTERN RIVER.

shores of Lake Huron are often steep, forming bluffs; while those of Lake Michigan are coasted by shifting sand-hills of from 100 to 200 feet in height. In the southern part are those natural parks, thinly scattered over with trees, called in the parlance of the country, 'oak openings;' and in the southwest are rich prairie lands. The Northern Peninsula exhibits a striking contrast, both in soil and surface, to the southern. While the latter is level or moderately undulating, and luxuriantly fertile, the former is picturesque, rugged, and even mountainous, with streams abounding in rapids and waterfalls—rich in minerals, but rigorous in climate, and sterile in soil. The Wisconsin or Porcupine Mountains, which form the watershed between Lakes Michigan and Superior, are much nearer the latter than the former, and attain an elevation of about 2000 feet in the northwestern portion of the peninsula. The eastern part of this division of the State is undulating and picturesque, but the central is hilly, and composed of table-land. The shores of Lake Superior are composed of a sandstone rock, which, in many places, is worn by the action of the wind and waves into fancied resemblances of castles, etc., forming the celebrated

Pictured Rocks; while the shores of Lake Michigan are composed of a limestone rock. The streams on the northern slope of the Porcupine Mountains have a rapid descent, and abound in picturesque falls and rapids. The Northern Peninsula is primitive, and the Southern secondary; but primitive rocks are scattered over the plains of the latter, of more than 100 tons weight, most abundant on the borders of the Great Lakes, on the flanks of valleys, and where traces of recent floods are apparent." *

Lake Superior washes the northern shore of the State, Lake Michigan the western, and Lakes Huron and Erie the eastern. They have all been described, together with the channels connecting them, in the chapter devoted to the United States. Detroit, between Lakes Erie and St. Clair, and Grand Haven on Lake Michigan, are the principal ports of the State.

The principal bays are Saginaw and Thunder bays on Lake Huron, Tequamenon and Kewechaw bays on Lake Superior, and Green, Little and Grand Traverse bays, and the Great and Little Bays des Noquets on Lake Michigan.

A number of small lakes lie in the State. They possess no commercial value, but form a beautiful feature of the landscape.

The rivers of the State are nearly all small. The Detroit and Ste. Marie have been noticed. Those of the southern peninsula empty into Lakes Michigan, Huron and Erie. Those flowing into Lake Michigan are the St. Joseph's, Kalamazoo, Grand, Maskegon and Manistee. The Au Sable and Saginaw flow into Lake Huron, the latter through Saginaw Bay, and the Huron and Raisin into Lake Erie. The rivers of the northern peninsula are fine mill streams, but are unfit for navigation by reason of rocks and rapids. The principal are the Menomonee, Montreal, and Ontonagon. The first flows into Green Bay, and the others into Lake Superior.

A group of Islands, forming Manitou county, lies in the northern part of Lake Michigan.

MINERALS.

"The upper peninsula, rich in minerals, prominent among which is copper, is mostly of primitive geological character; the lower exclusively secondary. The copper deposits among the primary rocks of the northern peninsula are the richest in the world, the copper belt

* Lippincott's Gazetteer, p. 1189.

being 120 miles long and from 2 to 6 miles wide. A block of several tons of almost pure copper, taken from the mouth of Ontonagon River, has been built into the wall of the Washington monument at the national capital. A mass weighing 150 tons was uncovered, in 1854, in the North American mine. Isle Royale abounds in this mineral; one house in that district, during five and a half months of 1854, shipped over 2,000,000 of pounds, and in the nine years previous there were produced 4824 tons. The yield of copper in the State has risen to an annual average of 8000 tons, with promise of steady increase. The opening of the St. Mary's Canal and the clearing of the entrance into Portage Lake have given fresh impetus to this branch of mining industry, which is becoming one of the most cherished interests of the State. Silver has been found in connection with the copper in the proportion of from 25 to 50 per cent. of the precious metal. Iron of a superior quality has been discovered in a bed of slate from 6 to 25 miles wide, and 150 long, extending into Wisconsin. In the production of this mineral, in 1863, Michigan was only second to Pennsylvania, having produced 273,000 tons of ore. Bituminous coal is mined on an enlarging scale to meet the demand of manufactures. Salt also exists in quantities repaying the investment of capital. The high prices lately prevailing have caused a rapid development of the salt fields around Saginaw, a basin some 40 or 50 miles square, in which, by boring some 800 feet, an inexhaustible supply of brine is obtained, yielding 80 or 90 per cent. of salt." *

CLIMATE.

The climate of the State is less severe than that of other portions of the country in the same latitude, being greatly tempered by the lake breezes.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The soil in the middle and lower part of the southern peninsula is very rich, and yields handsome returns. It consists generally of a deep, dark, rich sandy loam, which is frequently mixed with gravel and clay. The northern part abounds in excellent timber. The northern peninsula is heavily wooded with white pine, spruce, hemlock, birch, and oak. The hardier grains do well in this part of the State, but maize is not suited to it.

* General Land Office Report.

There are upwards of 5,000,000 acres of improved land in the State. The principal agricultural returns are as follows :

Bushels of wheat,	16,800,000
" Indian corn,	14,100,000
" oats,	8,700,000
" Irish potatoes,	10,325,000
" rye,	160,000
" peas and beans,	350,000
" buckwheat,	450,000
" barley,	840,000
Tons of hay,	1,300,000
Pounds of butter,	25,000,000
" cheese,	675,000
Number of horses,	230,000
" asses and mules,	2,500
" milch cows,	255,000
" sheep,	2,000,000
" swine,	425,000
" young cattle,	270,000
Value of domestic animals,	\$52,000,000
Pounds of wool,	8,750,000

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

Wheat, and other grains, flour, pork, lumber, copper, and wool, are the principal exports of the State. Michigan is admirably located for commerce, having many good harbors, and an immense water front. In 1863, the foreign exports of the State were valued at \$2,008,599, and the imports at \$771,834.

Manufactures are yet in their infancy. In 1870, there were in this State 9455 establishments devoted to manufactures, mining, and the mechanic arts. They employed a capital of \$71,712,283, consumed raw material worth \$68,142,515, and yielding an annual product of \$118,394,676. The principal products were valued as follows :

Pig iron,	\$2,911,515
Copper,	9,260,976
Sawed and planed lumber,	33,078,241
Flour,	21,174,247

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In 1872 there were 2235 miles of completed railroads in Michigan, constructed at a cost of over \$100,000,000. The only railroad in the northern peninsula is from the upper end of Green Bay to the iron region. In

the lower peninsula the railroads lie south of Saginaw Bay, beyond which the State is comparatively unsettled. The principal towns of the State have railroad communication with each other and with all parts of the Union.

EDUCATION.

There are seven colleges in Michigan, the principal of which is the *University of Michigan*, which is located at Ann Arbor, in the south-east part of the State. It embraces departments of literature, law, and medicine, and, in 1867, was attended by 1255 students.

The State has a *Normal School* at Ypsilanti. It was opened in 1854, and is in a prosperous condition.

The system of public education is under the general supervision of a State Superintendent of Public Instruction, who is elected by the people for two years. Each county is in charge of a County Superintendent, who manages the schools thereof.

In 1870, there were 5110 public schools in Michigan, attended by 278,686 children. The amount expended on these schools during the year was \$2,783,943. The State has three distinct school funds (the Primary School, University, and Normal School Funds), amounting in the aggregate to \$2,925,644.

In 1870, there were 181 private schools in the State, attended by about 12,000 pupils.

In 1870, there were 26,763 libraries in the State, with 2,174,744 volumes.

In the same year, there were 16 daily, 3 tri-weekly, 174 weekly, and 18 other newspapers and periodicals published in the State, making a total of 211. Of these, 167 were political, 7 religious, and 37 miscellaneous. Their total annual circulation was 19,686,978 copies.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The *Michigan State Prison* is located at Jackson. It is provided with ample buildings, and in November, 1870, contained 663 convicts. The prisoners are required to labor, and the institution is self-supporting.

The *Reform School*, at Lansing, was opened in 1856, and contains about 262 boys.

The *Michigan Insane Asylum* is located at Kalamazoo. It was opened in 1859. On the 1st of January, 1870, it contained 305 inmates—156 males and 149 females.

The *Asylum for the Education of the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind* is at Flint. It was opened in 1854, and, in 1870, contained 120 deaf mutes, and 30 blind persons.

State prisoners are sent to the Detroit House of Correction (a city institution) for crimes punishable with imprisonment in the county jails.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, there were 1415 churches in Michigan. The value of church property was \$9,133,816.

FINANCES.

On the 30th of November, 1874, the State debt amounted to \$1,588,135. The total receipts of the Treasury for the fiscal year ending on that date, including a balance of \$854,713 on hand from the previous year, amounted to \$3,065,879, and the total expenditures for the same period to \$1,995,604.

In 1868 there were 42 National banks, with a capital of \$5,210,010, doing business in the State.

GOVERNMENT.

All citizens of the United States over 21 years of age, who have resided in the State six months, and all male foreigners who have resided in the State two years, and have declared their intention to become citizens six months before the elections, are entitled to vote at the elections in this State. All civilized Indians residing in the State, not belonging to any tribe, are also entitled to vote.

The government is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Auditor-General, and Attorney-General, and a Legislature consisting of a Senate (of 32 members) and a House of Representatives (of 100 members), all elected by the people for 2 years. The Legislature meets biennially, on the first Wednesday in January. The general election is held in November.

The Courts of the State are the Supreme Court, Circuit Courts, Probate Courts, and Courts held by Justices of the Peace. The Supreme Court consists of four judges, elected for 8 years, one judge retiring every 2 years. All judges in this State are elected by the people.

The seat of Government is located at Lansing.

The State is divided into 62 counties.

HISTORY.

Michigan was first settled by the French. It derives its name from an Indian word (*Michi-sawg-ye-gan*), meaning "the Lake Country." In 1630 the French missionaries established a station on Lake Huron, and in 1660 founded one on Lake Superior. In 1668 a mission was established at the Sault-Ste.-Marie, and in 1671 Father Marquette founded the mission of St. Ignatius on the main land, to the north of the island of Mackinaw. These missionaries were so successful in their efforts that nearly all the Hurons were converted to Christianity. Soon after this became known to the other tribes, the converts were attacked, and massacred or dispersed by the Iroquois.

In 1667 the trading posts were garrisoned by French soldiers by order of the king of France, who wished to foster the fur trade. In 1701 Detroit was founded by a colony from Montreal. A fort was erected and garrisoned for the protection of the settlement, and a flourishing trade opened with the western Indians. The settlements languished, however. The home Government did but little to encourage them, and the Iroquois were their constant enemies.

In 1763 the whole country passed, with Canada, into the hands of the British. Pontiac, one of the leading chiefs, now induced the tribes to take concerted measures for the expulsion of the whites. Simultaneous attacks were made upon the English forts. Mackinaw was taken by stratagem, and all the western posts were captured and destroyed. Detroit was invested and besieged for several months. It held out bravely, however, and the majority of the Indians, becoming tired of the siege, returned to their homes. Thus deserted by his allies, Pontiac was forced to abandon the struggle.

In 1783 Michigan, as a part of the Northwest Territory, became the property of the United States. The British, however, appreciating the importance of Detroit, held on to it for a much longer time, and did not finally surrender it to the Americans until 1796.

In 1805 the territory of Michigan was organized, and General William Hull, an officer who had served gallantly through the Revolution, was appointed Governor. Detroit was made the seat of government.

The Territory was sparsely settled, but suffered much during the second war with England. The fortress of Mackinaw was surrendered to the British and Indians on the 17th of July, 1812. On the 15th of August, General Hull surrendered Detroit to General Brock,

without making the least effort to defend it. In January, 1813, General Winchester was surprised and surrounded at Frenchtown on the River Raisin, by a strong force of British troops and Indians. He made a stubborn defence, but finally surrendered upon the condition that his men should be protected from the Indians. General Proctor violated his word, however, and suffered his Indian allies to massacre Americans, the wounded and many of the disarmed prisoners.

In September, 1813, the gloom which the reverses of the Americans had cast over the frontier was lightened by the splendid victory won over the British fleet in Lake Erie, only a few miles from the shores of Michigan, by Commodore O. H. Perry. This was followed by the evacuation of Detroit by the British, and the important triumph achieved by the American army under General Harrison, over the British and Indians, on the banks of the River Thames, in Canada, and but a few miles distant from Detroit. Tecumseh was killed in this battle. Several other minor actions occurred along the Michigan frontier, but the Territory was not again occupied by the enemy.

In 1820 the population of the Territory was 8900 souls, and in this estimate the dwellers in the present State of Wisconsin were included.

"About the year 1832, the tide of emigration began to set strong towards Michigan Territory. Steamboat navigation had opened a new commerce upon the lakes, and had connected the eastern lakes and their population with the Illinois and Upper Mississippi. This immense lake navigation encircled the peninsula of Michigan. It became an object of exploration. Its unrivalled advantages for navigation, its immense tracts of the most fertile arable lands, adapted to the cultivation of all the northern grains and grasses, attracted the attention of western emigrants. The tide soon began to set strong into Michigan. Its fine level and rolling plains, its deep and enduring soil, and its immense advantages for trade and commerce had become known and duly appreciated. The hundreds of canoes, pirogues, and barges, with their half-civilized *couriers du bois*, which had annually visited Detroit for more than a century, had given way to large and splendid steamboats, which daily traversed the lakes from Buffalo to Chicago, from the east end of Lake Erie to the south-western extremity of Lake Michigan. Nearly a hundred sail of sloops and schooners were now traversing every part of these inland seas. Under these circumstances, how should Michigan remain a savage wilderness? New York State and the New England States began to send forth their

numerous colonies, and the wilderness to smile. At the end of two years more, or in 1834, the population of Michigan had increased to 87,273 souls, exclusive of Indians. The following year the number amounted to more than 90,000 persons, distributed over 38 counties, comprised in the southern half of the peninsula, and the 'attached Huron, or Wisconsin District,' lying west of Lake Michigan. The town of Detroit, which in 1812 was a stockade village, had now become 'a city,' with nearly 2500 inhabitants. The humble villages and wigwams of the Indians, sparsely distributed over a wide extent of wilderness, had now given way to thousands of farms and civilized habitations. Towns and smiling villages usurped the encampment and the battle-field. The fertile banks of the 'River Raisin' were crowned with hamlets and towns instead of the melancholy stockade. A constitution had been adopted on the 15th of June, 1836, and the 'State of Michigan' was admitted into the Union on the 26th day of January, 1837, and Stephens T. Mason was made the first Governor."

During the late war Michigan contributed 90,119 troops to the service of the United States.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the principal cities and towns of the State are, Detroit, Grand Rapids, Adrian, Kalamazoo, Ann Arbor, Jackson and Monroe.

LANSING,

The capital of the State, is situated in Ingham county, on the Grand River, 110 miles northwest of Detroit. Latitude $42^{\circ} 42' 30''$ N.; longitude $84^{\circ} 28'$ W.

The city was originally laid out upon quite an extensive plan, and is not yet built with sufficient compactness to do justice to the designs of its founders. The streets are broad, intersect each other at right-angles, and are shaded with trees. The principal building is the *State House*, a large and handsome structure, located on an eminence, 50 feet above the level of the river. The *State Agricultural College* is located in the vicinity, and the *House of Correction*, for juvenile offenders, stands in the eastern portion of the city. Lansing contains a female college, 2 good public schools, 2 newspaper offices, and 12 churches. In 1870, the population was 5241.

The city has railway communication with all parts of the State. The river affords excellent water-power, which is used for operating several flour mills and factories

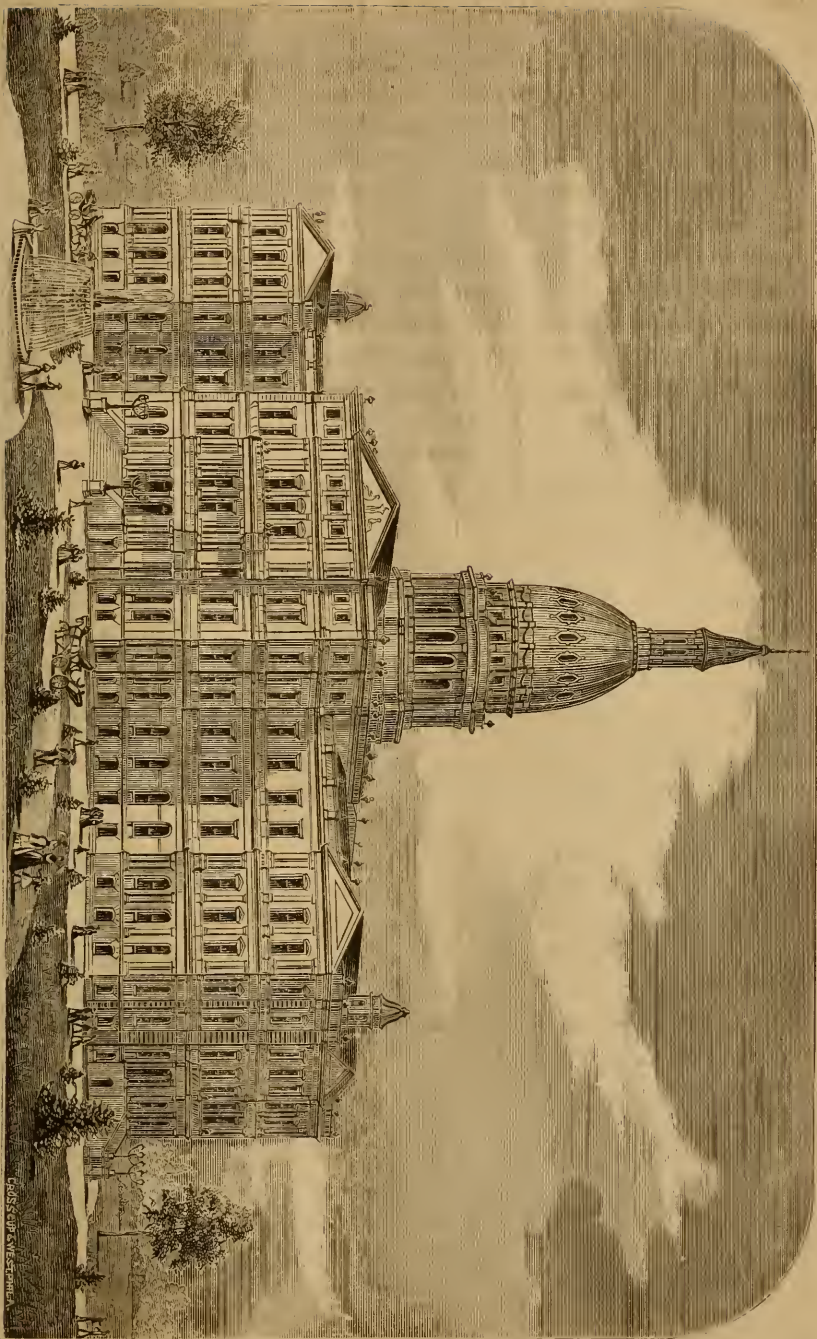
In 1847, a Mr. James Seymour, owning some land on the Grand River, made a proposition to the Legislature of Michigan, that if they would remove the seat of Government on to his lands, he would give 20 acres, and erect the capitol and buildings for the use of the State authorities. This offer was not accepted, but the Legislature passed a bill locating the capital in the township. At this period but one family occupied the site of the future capital. In May, 1847, the town of Lansing was laid out, and within the next few weeks one thousand persons moved into the place, which was named from Lansing in New York, the former home of some of the settlers. In 1850, the seat of Government was formally transferred from Detroit to this place.

DETROIT,

The metropolis of the State, is situated on the right or northwest bank of the Detroit River, 18 miles from the head of Lake Erie, 8 miles from the outlet of Lake St. Clair, and 110 miles by railway from Lansing. The width of the river averages about five-eighths of a mile, the width from the docks of Detroit to the opposite docks of Windsor, in Canada, being about half a mile. The depth between the docks varies from 12 to 48 feet, averaging 32 feet; the descent from Lake St. Clair to Lake Erie is about 6 feet, averaging 3 inches per mile; and the velocity of the current in the deepest part opposite the city is two miles and a half per hour. The stream is so deep and its current so strong and uniform, that it keeps itself clear, and its navigation is not affected as is that of the Mississippi, with either rocks, sand-bars, trees, or sawyers. Its current also carries along the ice with a slow and uniform motion, so that it is never dammed up in winter, while the St. Lawrence, at Montreal, is shallow, full of rocks, against which the ice lodges, and often forms a dam across the river, and raises the water from 20 to 25 feet, overflowing its low banks for miles, and sweeping off and destroying large amounts of property. These peculiarities make Detroit a secure and accessible harbor in all seasons. •

Bordering the river, along which it extends for several miles, and for 1200 feet back from the water, the plan of the city is rectangular. In the rear of this portion it is triangular. The city covers an area of about 10 square miles, and is for the most part well built. The streets and avenues are wide, many of them from 100 to 200 feet. Five of these centre at a public ground, called the Grand Circus. In the city are several public squares or spaces, the principal of which

CAPITOL OF MICHIGAN AT LANSING.



CROSS & WILSON, NEW YORK.



are the Grand Circus and the Campus Martius. The streets are generally well paved, with broad side walks, and are shaded with noble forest trees. Jefferson and Woodward avenues, and Congress street are the most important thoroughfares. Lines of street cars connect the principal points of the city.

A large portion of the city is built of wood, but of late years, brick, stone, and iron have been largely used in erecting new edifices and in improving old ones. In consequence of this, the business streets now present a handsome appearance, and in the private sections are to be found many elegant and tasteful residences.

The principal buildings are the *Custom House*, a magnificent stone edifice; the *City Hall*, a fine structure of stone; and the *Old State House*, now used for literary purposes.

The city contains about 66 public schools, each of which is provided with handsome and convenient buildings. The citizens are very proud of their free school system, and with good reason.

The benevolent and charitable institutions are numerous, and are well conducted. The principal establishments are the *Industrial School*, the *Harper*, *St. Mary's*, and *Marine Hospitals*, the *Orphan Asylum*, and the *House for the Friendless*. In the Industrial School, the ragged and vagrant children of the city are gathered and taught to read, write, and sing, to mend and make their clothing, and are given a good meal every day.

The city contains about 38 churches, some of which are among its principal ornaments, 11 newspaper, and 3 magazine offices, and 3 first-class hotels. It is lighted with gas, and is supplied with pure water, which is pumped from the Detroit River by means of a steam engine into a hydraulic reservoir, from which it is supplied to the city pipes. The city is provided with an efficient police force and a steam fire department, and is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 79,577.

The admirable position of Detroit has made it an important commercial point. It controls a large share of the commerce between the United States and Canada, but its chief source of prosperity is the lake trade. Commanding the only outlet of the three upper lakes, it of necessity controls a large share of their commerce, and also conducts a large trade with the ports of Lake Erie. It is largely interested in the rich trade which the working of the copper and iron mines of Lake Superior has developed. Regular lines of steamers ply between the city and the ports on the lakes. Detroit has direct railway communication with all parts of the Union, and the terminus of the Great

Western Railway of Canada is at Windsor, on the opposite side of the river. The grain trade of Detroit is important, and is increasing every year.

The city is extensively engaged in manufactures. The most important articles produced are locomotives, iron machinery, window sashes and blinds, cabinet ware, leather, malt liquors, iron and brass ware, and lumber. The Detroit Copper Smelting Works annually smelt over \$2,000,000 worth of copper ore into ingot copper. Another large establishment is engaged in manufacturing iron from the iron ore sent from the Lake Superior mines.

In 1670, the French built a fort on the present site of Detroit. The vicinity at this time was occupied by villages of the Huron, Potawatomy, and Ottawa Indians. Ninety years later, in 1760, the French posts passed into the hands of Great Britain. In 1783, after the close of the Revolution, Detroit became a part of the United States, but was not formally delivered up to the American forces until 1796.

MISCELLANIES.

PONTIAC'S EFFORT TO CAPTURE DETROIT.

As every appearance of war was at an end, and the Indians seemed to be on a friendly footing, Pontiac approached Detroit without exciting any suspicions in the breast of the Governor or the inhabitants. He encamped at a little distance from it, and let the commandant know that he was come to trade; and being desirous of brightening the chain of peace between the English and his nation, desired that he and his chiefs might be admitted to hold a council with him. The Governor, still unsuspicious, and not in the least doubting the sincerity of the Indians, granted their general's request, and fixed on the next morning for their reception.

On the evening of that day an Indian woman, who had been appointed by Major Gladwyn to make a pair of Indian shoes out of a curious elkskin, brought them home. The major was so pleased with them that, intending these as a present for a friend, he ordered her to take the remainder back and make it into others for himself. He then directed his servant to pay her for those she had done, and dismissed her. The woman went to the door that led to the street, but no further; she there loitered about as if she had not finished the business on which she came. A servant at length observed her, and asked her why she stayed there. She gave him, however, no answer.

Some short time after, the Governor himself saw her, and inquired of his servant what occasioned her stay. Not being able to get a satisfactory answer, he ordered the woman to be called in. When she came into his presence, he desired to know what was the reason of her loitering about, and not hastening home before the gates were shut, that she might complete in due time the work he had given her to do. She told him, after much hesitation, that as he had always

behaved with great goodness towards her, she was unwilling to take away the remainder of the skin, because he put so great a value upon it; and yet had not been able to prevail upon herself to tell him so. He then asked her why she was more reluctant to do so now than she had been when she made the former pair. With increased reluctance she answered, that she should never be able to bring them back.

His curiosity was now excited; he insisted on her disclosing the secret that seemed to be struggling in her bosom for utterance. At last, on receiving a promise that the intelligence she was about to give him should not turn to her prejudice; and that, if it appeared to be beneficial, she should be rewarded for it, she informed him that at the council to be held with the Indians on the following day, Pontiac and his chiefs intended to murder him, and, after having massacred the garrison and inhabitants, to plunder the town. That for this purpose all the chiefs who were to be admitted into the council-room had cut their guns short, so that they could conceal them under their blankets; with which, on a signal given by their general on delivering the belt, they were all to rise up and instantly to fire on him and his attendants. Having effected this, they were immediately to rush into the town, where they would find themselves supported by a great number of their warriors that were to come into it during the sitting of the council under the pretence of trading, but privately armed in the same manner. Having gained from the woman every necessary particular relative to the plot, and also the means by which she acquired a knowledge of them, he dismissed her with injunctions of secrecy, and a promise of fulfilling on his part with punctuality the engagements he had entered into.

The intelligence the Governor had just received gave him great uneasiness, and he immediately consulted the officer who was next him in command on the subject. But this gentleman, considering the information as a story invented for some artful purpose, advised him to pay no attention to it. This conclusion, however, had happily no weight with him. He thought it prudent to conclude it to be true till he was convinced it was not so; and therefore, without revealing his suspicions to any other person, he took every needful precaution that the time would admit of. He walked around the fort for the whole night, and saw himself that every sentinel was upon duty, and every weapon of defence in proper order.

As he traversed the ramparts that lay nearest to the Indian camp, he heard them in high festivity, and, little imagining that their plot was discovered, probably pleasing themselves with the anticipation of their success. As soon as the morning dawned, he ordered all the garrison under arms, and then, imparting his apprehensions to a few of the principal officers, gave them such directions as he thought necessary. At the same time he sent round to all the traders to inform them, that as it was expected a great number of Indians would enter the town that day, who might be inclined to plunder, he desired they would have their arms ready, and repel any attempt of that kind.

About 10 o'clock, Pontiac and his chiefs arrived, and were conducted to the council chamber, where the Governor and his principal officers, each with pistols in his belt, awaited his arrival. As the Indians passed on, they could not help observing that a greater number of troops than usual were drawn up on the parade, or marching about. No sooner were they entered, and seated on the skins prepared for them, than Pontiac asked the Governor on what occasion his young men, meaning the soldiers, were thus drawn up and parading the streets.

He received for answer that it was only intended to keep them perfect in their exercise.

The Indian chief warrior now began his speech, which contained the strongest professions of friendship and good-will towards the English : and when he came to the delivery of the belt of wampum, the particular mode of which, according to the woman's information, was to be the signal for the chiefs to fire, the Governor and all his attendants drew their swords half way out of their scabbards ; and the soldiers at the same time made a clattering with their arms before the door, which had been purposely left open. Pontiac, though one of the bravest men, immediately turned pale and trembled ; and instead of giving the belt in the manner proposed, delivered it according to the usual way. His chiefs, who had impatiently expected the signal, looked at each other with astonishment, but continued quiet waiting the result.

The Governor, in his turn, made a speech ; but, instead of thanking the great warrior for the professions of friendship he had just uttered, he accused him of being a traitor. He told him that the English, who knew everything, were convinced of his treachery and villanous designs ; and as a proof that they were acquainted with his most secret thoughts and intentions, he stepped towards an Indian chief that sat nearest to him, and drawing aside the blanket, discovered the shortened firelock. This entirely disconcerted the Indians and frustrated their design.

He then continued to tell them, that as he had given his word, at the time they had desired an audience, that their persons should be safe, he would hold his promise inviolable, though they so little deserved it. However, he desired them to make the best of their way out of the fort, lest his young men, on being acquainted with their treacherous purposes, should cut every one of them to pieces.

Pontiac endeavored to contradict the accusation, and to make excuses for his suspicious conduct ; but the Governor, satisfied of the falsity of his protestations, would not listen to him. The Indians immediately left the fort ; but, instead of being sensible of the Governor's generous behaviour, they threw off the mask, and the next day made a regular attack upon it.

Thus foiled, Pontiac laid formal siege to the fortress, and for many months that siege was continued in a manner and with a perseverance unexampled among the Indians. Even a regular commissariat department was organized, and bills of credit drawn out upon bark were issued, and, what is rarer, punctually paid.

MASSACRE AT THE RIVER RAISIN.

Immediately after the battle of the 18th of January, 1813, some of the French inhabitants, who had sold provisions to the British, followed them to Malden to get their pay. On their return, they brought word that the British and Indians were collecting in large force, to the amount of 3000, to attack Frenchtown. General Winchester paid but little attention to these reports, feeling considerable confidence in his own strength, and expecting reinforcements that would render him safe beyond a doubt, before the enemy could possibly attack him. The British seemed to be aware that they must make the attack before these reinforcements came up, if they wished to effect anything ; hence they hastened their preparations. On the 21st, several of the more prominent French citizens went to Winchester and told him that they had reliable information that the American

camp would be attacked that night or the next day. He was so infatuated that he paid no further deference to their statement than to order those soldiers who were scattered around the settlement, drinking cider with the inhabitants, to assemble and remain in camp all night.

About daylight, on the morning of the 22d of January, 1813, a large force of British and Indians, under Proctor and the celebrated Indian chiefs, Round Head and Split Log, attacked the camp of the Americans. The attack was made all along the lines, but the British forces were more particularly led against the upper camp, occupied by Major Madison and Colonels Lewis and Allen, and the Indians against the lower camp, occupied by Colonel Wells. The British were unsuccessful at their part of the lines, where the Americans fought with great bravery, and were protected very much by the pickets, which, being placed at some distance from the woods, afforded the Kentucky riflemen a fine opportunity to shoot the enemy down as they were advancing. An attempt was then made by the British to use a field piece just at the edge of the woods, by which they hoped to prostrate the pickets and batter down the houses, but the Kentuckians, with their sharpshooters, picked the men off as fast as they attempted to load it, so that they were forced to abandon the attack and suffer a repulse.

While these things were happening at the upper camp, a far different state of things existed at the lower one. The attack of the Indians was so impetuous, the position so indefensible, and the American force so inadequate, consisting of only 200 men, that, notwithstanding the bravery of Colonel Wells and his men, it was impossible to retain the position. Colonels Lewis and Allen attempted to take a reinforcement to the right wing, to enable Colonel Wells to retreat up the river on the ice, under cover of the high bank, to the upper camp. But before they arrived at the lower camp, the fire of the savages had become so galling that Wells was forced to abandon his position. This he attempted to do in good order, but as soon as his men began to give way, the Indians redoubled their cries and the impetuosity of their attack, so that the retreat speedily became a rout. In this condition they were met by Colonel Allen, who made every effort to call them to order and lead them in safety to the upper camp. But, notwithstanding the heroic exertions of Colonel Allen, and his earnest protestations and commands, they continued their disordered flight, and from some unaccountable reason, probably through an irresistible panic, caused by the terrible cries and onslaught of the savages, instead of continuing up the river to the upper camp, they fled diagonally across to the Hull road, so called, which led to Maumee, and attempted to escape to Ohio. And now the flight became a carnage. The Indians seeing the disorder of the Americans, who thought of nothing save running for their lives, and escaping the tomahawks of the savages, having warriors posted all along the woods which lined or were within a short distance of the river, now raised the cry that the Americans were flying, which cry was echoed by thousands of warriors, who all rushed to the spot and outstripped the fleeing soldiers. Some followed them closely in their tracks and brained them with their tomahawks from behind; some posted themselves on both sides of the narrow road and shot them down as they passed; and finally some got in advance, and headed them off at Plumb Creek, a small stream about a mile from the River Raisin. Here the panic-stricken soldiers, who had thrown away most of their arms to facilitate their flight, huddled together like sheep, with the brutal foe on all sides, were slaughtered, and so closely were they hemmed in, tradition says, that after the battle, 40 dead bodies were found lying scalped and plundered on 2 rods square.

General Winchester, impressed with the foolish idea that an attack would not be made, had retired the night before without having made any arrangements for safety or dispatch in case of an attack. Therefore, when awakened by the firing, he and his aids made great confusion, all crying for their horses, which were in Colonel Navarre's stable, the servants scarcely awake enough to equip them with haste. The luckless commander became very impatient to join his forces, nearly a mile distant, and, to gratify his desire, Colonel Navarre offered him his best and fleetest horse, which had been kept saddled all night, as Navarre, in common with all the French inhabitants, expected an attack before morning. On this horse he started for the camp, but, on the way, finding that a large number of the troops were then fleeing on the Hull road, he followed after them to rally them, and, if possible, regain the day; but on his way he was taken prisoner by an Indian (said to have been Jack Brandy), who knew by his clothes that he was an officer, and therefore spared his life. Proctor persuaded the Indian to deliver him over into his hands. Colonel Allen was also taken prisoner about the same time; he had behaved with extraordinary courage during the whole action, although wounded in the thigh. He was finally killed by an Indian while held a prisoner.

With Winchester as his prisoner, Proctor felt that he could dictate terms to that portion of the American troops under the command of Major Madison in the upper camp, who had thus far made a successful resistance. Proctor sent with a flag one of General Winchester's aids, with the peremptory orders of the latter, directing Major Madison to surrender. Colonel Proctor had demanded an immediate surrender, or he would burn the settlement, and allow the Indians to massacre the prisoners and the inhabitants of the place. Major Madison replied, that it was customary for the Indians to massacre the wounded and prisoners after a surrender, and he would not agree to any capitulation General Winchester might make, unless the safety and protection of his men were guaranteed. After trying in vain to get an unconditional surrender, Major Madison and his men being disposed to sell their lives as dearly as possible, rather than run the risk of being massacred in cold blood, Proctor agreed to the terms demanded, which were, that private property should be respected, that sleds should be sent next morning to take the sick and wounded to Malden, and that their side arms should be restored to the officers on their arrival there.

These terms completed, the surrender was made, and the prisoners, and British, and Indians started for Malden; not, however, until the Indians had violated the first article of the agreement, by plundering the settlement. But finally all departed, except the sick and wounded American soldiers, who were left in the two houses of the upper camp, to await the coming of the sleds on the morrow. Only two or three persons were left in charge of them, a neglect which was nearly or quite criminal on the part of Proctor. The last and most disgraceful scene in this bloody tragedy was yet to be enacted. The sleds that were to take the ill-fated sufferers to Malden never came. In their stead came, the next morning, 300 Indians, painted black and red, determined on massacring the wounded Americans, in revenge for their loss the day before. The slaughter soon commenced in earnest. Breaking into the houses where the Americans were, they first plundered and then tomahawked them. The houses were set on fire, and those within were consumed; if any attempted to crawl out of the doors or windows, they were wounded with the hatchet and pushed back into the flames: those that happened to be outside were stricken down, and their dying

bodies thrown into the burning dwellings. Major Wolfolk, the secretary of General Winchester, was killed in the massacre. Thus ended the "Massacre of the River Raisin." Thus perished in cold blood some of Kentucky's noblest heroes: their death filled with sorrow many homes south of the Ohio. No monument marks the place of their death: but little is known of the private history of those brave spirits who traversed a wilderness of several hundred miles, and gave up their lives for their country: who died alone, unprotected, wounded, in a settlement far from the abode of civilization.

But few of the killed were ever buried. Their bones lay bleaching in the sun for years. On the 4th of July, 1818, a company of men under the charge of Colonel Anderson, an old settler of Frenchtown, went to the spot of the battle and collected a large quantity of the bones, and buried them, with appropriate ceremonies, in the old graveyard in Monroe. For years after, however, it was not uncommon to find a skull, fractured by the fatal tomahawk, hidden away in some clump of bushes, where the dogs and wild beasts had dragged the body to devour its flesh.

WISCONSIN.

Area,	53,924 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	775,881
Population in 1870,	1,054,670

THE State of Wisconsin is situated between $42^{\circ} 30'$ and $46^{\circ} 55'$ N. latitude, and between 87° and $92^{\circ} 50'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Michigan, Lake Superior and Minnesota; on the east by Lake Michigan; on the south by Illinois; and on the west by Iowa and Minnesota. Its extreme length, from north to south, is about 285 miles, and its greatest breadth, from east to west, about 255 miles.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The surface of the State is generally an elevated rolling prairie. The highest point is in the northwest, while a slight ridge divides the waters flowing into Lake Superior from those flowing into the Mississippi. Another ridge crosses the south central part of the State. A third ridge crosses the southeast corner, and separates the rivers flowing into Green Bay from those emptying into Lake Michigan. The rivers which flow into Lake Superior descend abruptly to it, and are broken by numerous falls and rapids, which afford fine mill sites.

Lake Superior washes the northern shore of the State, and Lake Michigan the western.

Green Bay enters the State from Lake Michigan, in the extreme northeast. It is about 100 miles long, and from 15 to 35 miles wide. It lies between this State and the northern peninsula of Michigan. It has an average depth of 500 feet, and abounds in picturesque scenery. It possesses an active trade, and is navigated by steamers to Green Bay City, its head. The Fox River unites the Bay with *Lake Win-*

nebago, about 25 miles south of Green Bay City. This lake is about 28 miles long, and about 10 miles wide. It is navigable for steamers, as is also the Fox River. The scenery is very beautiful. Fond du Lac, at the southern end of the Lake, is the principal town. From Oshkosh, on the western side of the Lake, a ship canal has been constructed to Portage City, which affords uninterrupted communication between the Mississippi River and Lake Michigan. *The Mississippi River* washes the southwestern shore of the State as far as Prescott, where it bends to the northwest, and passes into Minnesota. It receives the waters of the St. Croix, the Chippewa, the Black, the Bad Axe, and the Wisconsin rivers. *The St. Croix River* rises south of the western end of Lake Superior, and flows southwest to the Minnesota line, when it turns to the south, separates Wisconsin from Minnesota, and empties into the Mississippi about 40 miles southeast of St. Paul. It is about 200 miles long. Near its mouth it expands into a lake 36 miles long, and 4 miles wide, known as St. Croix Lake. It is about 100 yards wide at its mouth. It is repeatedly broken by falls. *The Chippewa* is about 200 miles long, and the *Black* about 150. *The Wisconsin River* rises in the extreme northern part of the State, and flows south to Portage City, where it is joined by the waters of a number of small lakes, extending northeast into Lake Winnebago. This chain forms the Grand Portage, by means of which water communication is maintained between the Mississippi and the lakes. From Portage City it flows southwest into the Mississippi, near Prairie du Chien. It is about 500 miles long, and is navigable for steamers for about 200 miles. *The Menomonee* forms a part of the northeast boundary, and flows into Green Bay. It falls 1049 feet during its course, and is an excellent mill stream.

A number of small lakes are scattered through the State.

MINERALS.

“The mineral resources of the State are varied and valuable. The lead region of Illinois and Iowa extends over an area of 2140 square miles in Wisconsin, which compares with the other portions in the abundance and richness of the ores. In 1863, there were 848,625 pounds of lead received at Milwaukee. The completion of the Southern Wisconsin Railroad will raise the aggregate to 2,500,000 pounds. It is mingled with copper and zinc ores. The iron region of Lake Superior presents within the limits of this State abundant deposits of great richness. Magnetic iron, plumbago, and the non-



COPPER MINE.

metallic earths abound. Copper deposits have also been developed, but as yet have only been worked to a limited extent. Beautiful marbles, susceptible of elaborate working, exist. The mineral productions are rapidly opening a very inviting field for capital and industry, promising an immense addition to the resources of this energetic young State.” *

CLIMATE.

The winters are long and severe, but the temperature is somewhat mitigated by the lake breezes. The summers are warm, but pleasant. The State is healthy as a general rule, and is less liable than other new places to the diseases incident to new settlements, owing to the openness of the country.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The soil, as a general rule, is fertile, and is productive, even in the mineral regions of the north. The best lands are on the prairies, where the soil consists of a dark brown vegetable mould, from one to

* Report of the General Land Office.

two feet in depth, very mellow, and entirely destitute of stones or gravel.

"Wisconsin possesses abundant timber resources, and an immense lumbering business is carried on in many of the northern and western counties, the pineries of Marathon, Chippewa, Clark, Wood, St. Croix, and other counties, furnishing many millions of feet of logs and lumber annually. Our Clark correspondent claims that 100,000,000 feet of pine timber is cut each year in that county alone; while in Monroe 30,000,000 feet is annually cut into lumber by about twenty mills. Hard wood timber also abounds in all parts of the State, and there are few counties without sufficient wood for local uses. The lumbering business is a source of great profit to those engaged in it, and in Brown county parties boast of cutting enough white pine logs from eighty acres to net \$1200 to \$1500." *

Wheat, corn, oats, potatoes, and hay, are the staple crops of this State, the first named being the most important.

In 1870, there were in Wisconsin 5,795,538 acres of improved land. In the same year the returns were as follows:

Bushels of wheat,	25,323,647
" rye,	1,356,736
" Indian corn,	14,875,968
" oats,	19,878,794
" barley,	1,627,569
" potatoes,	6,642,845
Pounds of wool,	4,086,638
" butter,	22,257,117
" cheese,	1,494,145
" hops,	4,738,222
Tons of hay,	1,280,432
Number of horses,	149,989
" asses and mules,	1,998
" cattle,	480,319
" sheep,	790,458
" swine,	865,998
" milch cows,	250,312
Value of domestic animals, about,	\$28,000,000
Estimated value of all farm productions,	\$77,507,261
Total assessed value of real and personal estate, \$326,765,238	

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

Possessing water communication with the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi, Wisconsin has a growing commerce. Her exports of grain

* Agricultural Report, April, 1868.

and lumber are very large. In 1863, the foreign exports were valued at \$3,323,637, and the imports at \$24,479. A large part of the products of the State passes through Chicago.

Manufactures are yet in their infancy. In 1870, there were in the State 7136 establishments, employing 39,055 operatives, and producing goods to the amount of \$85,624,966.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

The State contained, in 1872, 1725 miles of completed railroads, constructed at a cost of nearly \$45,000,000. The principal towns of the State are connected with each other, and with all parts of the Union. The main lines lead either to Chicago, Illinois, or to St. Louis, Missouri.

Besides these roads, there is the Portage Canal, already mentioned, connecting the Wisconsin with Lake Winnebago, which was constructed by the State.

EDUCATION.

There are seven colleges in the State, the principal of which is the *State University*, at Madison. It embraces a College of Letters, a College of Arts, a Preparatory Department, and a Female Department. It is well endowed.

There is a *Normal School* at Platteville, and one at Whitewater, and measures are on foot to establish others at Stoughton, Oshkosh, and Sheboygan. Teachers' Institutes are held at stated times in various parts of the State.

The educational system is under the general supervision of a Superintendent of Public Instruction, elected by the people of the State for two years. Each county and each city has a separate Superintendent, who manages its affairs, as in the other Western States. There is a permanent school fund, amounting to \$2,205,487. In 1870, the amount expended for the schools was \$2,094,160. The number of public schools was 5000, attended by 264,525 pupils.

In the same year there were about 400 private schools in the State, attended by about 30,000 pupils.

In 1870, there were 2857 libraries in Wisconsin, containing 880,508 volumes.

In the same year, the number of newspapers and periodicals published in the State was 173, nearly all political. They had an aggregate annual circulation of nearly 11,000,000 copies.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The State Prison is located at Waupun, and is one of the best in the country. In October, 1870, it contained 217 convicts. In May, 1870, the workshops were destroyed; loss, \$70,000.

The Hospital for the Insane, at Madison, is an excellent institution, and is in a prosperous condition. In October, 1870, it contained 532 inmates.

The Institute for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb is at Delavan, and the *Institution for the Education of the Blind*, at Janesville. The former contains about 122, and the latter 64 pupils. They are excellent institutions, and besides furnishing their pupils with the rudiments of a plain education, teach them some simple, but useful employment.

The State Reform School, at Waukesha, is in excellent condition, and is conducted on the family system. In 1870, it contained 239 boys and girls.

The Soldiers' Orphan's Home School, at Madison, is in a prosperous condition, and is crowded to its utmost capacity. In 1870, it contained 331 pupils.

• RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, there were 1466 churches in Wisconsin. The value of church property was \$4,890,781.

FINANCES.

In 1870, the total debt of the State amounted to \$2,252,057. The receipts of the Treasury for the fiscal year, ending September 30th, 1870, were \$886,696, and the expenditures \$906,329.

In 1868, there were 34 National banks, with a capital of \$2,960,000 doing business in the State.

GOVERNMENT.

In this State, all citizens of the United States, without regard to color, all foreigners who have legally declared their intention to become citizens, Indians who have been declared citizens by Congress, and civilized persons of Indian descent who do not belong to any tribe, are entitled to vote at the elections.

The Government is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, State Treasurer, and Attorney-General, and a Legis-

lature, consisting of a Senate (of 33 members) and House of Representatives (of 100 members), all chosen by the people. The State officers and Senators are elected for two years, and Representatives for one year. The general election is held in November.

The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court (consisting of a Chief Justice and two Associates, elected by the people for six years), Circuit Courts, County Courts with probate powers, and in Justices of the Peace. All judges are elected by the people.

The seat of Government is established at Madison.

The State is divided into 58 counties.

HISTORY.

The country west of Lake Michigan was first explored by the French, in 1659. Its name is derived from its principal river, which was called by the Chippewas, who dwelt along its head waters, Wees-kon-san, which signifies "gathering of the waters." In 1661, the Jesuits in Canada began to establish missions along the south side of Lake Superior; and in 1668, after the peace between the French and the Six Nations, a number of new missions were established, and the country fully explored. Father Marquette and his companions passed from the head of Green Bay to an Indian village on the upper part of Fox River. Father Allouez had visited this village, but no Frenchman had ever gone beyond it.

"Being guided by the friendly Indians, Marquette and his companions came to the Wisconsin River, about three leagues distant, whose waters flowed westward. They floated down the river till the 17th of June, 1673, when they reached the Mississippi, the great 'Father of Waters,' which they entered with 'a joy that could not be expressed,' and raising their sails to new skies, and to unknown breezes, floated down this mighty river, between broad plains, garlanded with majestic forests and chequered with illimitable praries and island groves. They descended about 180 miles, when Marquette and Joliet landed, and followed an Indian trail about six miles, to a village. They were met by four old men, bearing the pipe of peace and 'brilliant with many colored plumes.' An aged chief received them at his cabin, and, with uplifted hands, exclaimed: 'How beautiful is the sun, Frenchmen, when thou comest to visit us!—our whole village awaits thee—in peace thou shalt enter all our dwellings.' Previous to their departure, an Indian chief selected a peace pipe from among his warriors, embellished with gorgeous plumage, which he hung around the neck

of Marquette, 'the mysterious arbiter of peace and war—the sacred calumet—the white man's protection among savages.' On reaching their boats, the little group proceeded onward. 'I did not,' says Marquette, 'fear death; I should have esteemed it the greatest happiness to have died for the glory of God.' They passed the mouth of the Missouri, and the humble missionary resolved in his mind, one day, to ascend its mighty current, and ascertain its source; and descending from thence toward the west, publish the gospel to a people of whom he had never heard. Passing onward, they floated by the Ohio, then, and for a brief time after, called the Wabash, and continued their explorations as far south as the mouth of the Arkansas, where they were escorted to the Indian village of Arkansae. Being now satisfied that the Mississippi entered the Gulf of Mexico, west of Florida, and east of California; and having spoken to the Indians of God and the mysteries of the Catholic faith, Marquette and Joliet prepared to ascend the stream. They returned by the route of the Illinois River to Green Bay, where they arrived in August. Marquette remained to preach the gospel to the Miamis, near Chicago. Joliet, in person, conveyed the glad tidings of their discoveries to Quebec. They were received with enthusiastic delight. The bells were rung during the whole day, and all the clergy and dignitaries of the place went in procession, to the cathedral, where Te Deum was sung and high mass celebrated."

The country continued to be occupied by French traders and missionaries, until the treaty of 1763, by which it was surrendered to Great Britain. The territory was governed by the laws of Canada until after the Revolution. Great Britain parted with it reluctantly, and did not withdraw her garrison from the post at Green Bay, until 1796. It was then made a part of the Northwest Territory of the United States. In 1809, it was included in the Territory of Illinois, and continued to form a part of it until 1818, when Illinois became a State of the Union. Then Wisconsin was joined to Michigan for purposes of government.

The principal events of the Black Hawk war occurred within the limits of the present State of Wisconsin, and the country was thus brought so conspicuously before the public, that its merits excited a decided enthusiasm amongst the people. After the peace, many emigrants located themselves in the southern part.

In 1836, Michigan was erected into a State, and Wisconsin was organized as a separate Territory. In 1841, a heavy emigration set

in, and continued during 1842 and 1843. In the last year, the number of persons who settled in the Territory is estimated at over 60,000. The population increased rapidly, and on the 29th of May, 1848, Wisconsin was admitted into the Union as a State.

During the rebellion this State contributed 96,118 men to the service of the United States.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the principal cities and towns of the State are Milwaukee, Green Bay, Watertown, Prairie du Chien, Racine, Kenosha, Janesville, Beloit, La Crosse, and Fond du Lac.

MADISON,

The capital of the State, is situated in Dane county, on an isthmus between Lakes Mendota and Monona, 80 miles west of Milwaukee, and 132 miles northwest of Chicago. Latitude $43^{\circ} 5' N.$, longitude $89^{\circ} 20' W.$

The city lies in the midst of the "Four Lake Region," so called from a chain of beautiful lakes which extend over a distance of 16 miles, and discharge their surplus waters into Yahara or Catfish River, a tributary of Rock River. Mendota, or Fourth Lake, the uppermost and largest, is 9 miles long, 6 miles wide, and from 50 to 70 feet deep in some places, and is fed chiefly by springs. It has beautiful white gravelly shores, and pure cold water. Monona, or Third Lake, is $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, and two miles wide; and lakes Waubesa and Kegonsa are each about 3 miles in length, by 2 miles in width. The isthmus is about three-quarters of a mile in width. The city stands in the centre of a broad valley surrounded by heights from which it can be seen for several miles. "Madison perhaps combines and overlooks more charming and diversified scenery, to please the eye of fancy, and promote health and pleasure, than any other town in the West; and in these respects it surpasses every other State capital in the Union. Its bright lakes, fresh groves, rippling rivulets, shady dales, and flowery meadow lawns are commingled in greater profusion and disposed in more picturesque order than we have ever elsewhere beheld."

The city is handsomely built, with broad, well-shaded, and paved streets dropping down to the shores of its pretty lakes. It contains many handsome public buildings, commercial edifices, and private dwellings. The *Capitol* is the principal edifice. It stands in the centre of the city, in the midst of a beautiful park of 14 acres, and is 70 feet



MADISON.

above the level of the lakes. It is built of native limestone, and is an imposing structure. Its original cost was \$500,000. The *Court House* is a tasteful building.

The public schools of the city are among the best in the State, and are in a flourishing condition. They consist of a high school, and a grammar school for each ward. Besides these are several private schools. The *State University* stands on the outskirts of the city, in a grove of 40 acres, and on an eminence overlooking the lakes. It has an annual income of over \$30,000. It possesses a fine library. The *Historical Society* is a flourishing institution, with a good library and collection of relics, etc. The libraries of the city, including that of the State, number over 30,000 volumes. The *State Lunatic Asylum* is located here.

The city contains about 14 churches, and 6 newspaper offices. It is lighted with gas and supplied with pure water. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 9176.

Madison is supplied with excellent water-power, and is to a limited extent engaged in manufactures. It is a place of considerable trade, and since the completion of the railways connecting it with the other parts of the State, has grown in every respect with marked rapidity. It is much frequented by pleasure seekers as a place of summer resort, and is regarded as one of the healthiest cities in the Union.

In 1836, Madison was selected as the seat of the State Government. At this time but a solitary log cabin marked the site. For several years its growth was slow, but the completion of the railways from the southward gave it an impetus which set it fairly on the way to its present prosperity.

MILWAUKEE,

The metropolis of the State, is situated in the county of the same name, on the western shore of Lake Michigan, at the mouth of the Milwaukee River, 75 miles east of Madison, and 90 miles north of Chicago. "The river approaches from the north in a direction nearly parallel with the lake shore, and is joined about half a mile from its mouth by the Menomonee River, which comes from the west. The largest boats of the lakes can ascend the river two miles from its mouth, as also the Menomonee for some distance above its confluence with the Milwaukee. About \$400,000 have been expended for the improvement of the harbor in addition to the appropriation by Congress for that purpose, so that now the city has one of the best harbors upon the whole chain of lakes."

The city lies on both sides of the river, and is built partly upon the river flats and partly upon the bluffs which overlook the lake. These latter are from 20 to 100 feet high, and are nearly perpendicular. The city is regularly laid out, with wide, straight, well-paved streets. It is one of the best built cities in the west, and is noted for its peculiar appearance. A large portion of its buildings are of brick made in the vicinity. These bricks are of a light straw color and are very hard and smooth. They give to the city a light and pleasing appearance which has earned it the name of the "Cream City" of the lakes. The "Milwaukee brick" is now very popular in all parts of the country, and large quantities of it are shipped annually, even as far east as New York and Boston. Many of the residences are elegant and tasteful, and the business portions contain some splendid warehouses.

The principal public buildings are the *Custom House* and *Court House*. The former is a fine structure of Athens stone.

There are about 13 public schools, a female college, and several private schools in the city. Also about 43 or 44 churches, 5 daily and 7 weekly newspapers, and 3 hotels and a public library.

The Benevolent and Charitable institutions include 3 orphan asylums, 2 hospitals, and several associations for the relief of the poor and afflicted.



RIVER VIEW IN MILWAUKEE.

The city is lighted with gas, and is supplied with water. Street railways connect the distant points. There are also an efficient police force, a fire alarm telegraph, and a steam fire department. The city government consists of a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 71,499. Nearly one-half of the inhabitants are Germans or of German parentage, and the city is in many respects as much German as American in its characteristics. The annual product of lager beer is nearly 3,000,000 gallons.

Six railways connect Milwaukee with all parts of the country, and steamers ply between it and the other lake ports. It is the shipping point and outlet of one of the richest grain producing countries in the world, and is the greatest *primary* wheat market in the world. In 1862, its receipts of wheat, and flour reduced to wheat, amounted to 18,000,000 bushels. In 1865, 13,250,000 bushels were exported. It is provided with ample storage accommodations for grain, and its elevators are among the curiosities of the place. That of the Milwaukee and St. Paul Railway will hold 1,500,000 bushels. There is direct communication with Detroit during the whole year, steamers plying regularly between Milwaukee and Grand Haven in connection with the Milwaukee and Detroit Railway. Great quantities of lumber are annually exported.

The Milwaukee River has been dammed, and affords fine water-power, which is used by the rapidly growing manufactories of the city. Flour, iron, and iron ware, machinery, and beer, are the principal products. One of the largest rolling mills in the West is located here.

Milwaukee derives its name from an Indian word *Me-ne-aw-kee*, said to signify *rich or beautiful land*. In 1785, a trading post was established here by Alexander Laframboise, from Mackinaw, but the town was not settled until 1835. At first its growth was not only slow, but was hampered by the obstacles so common to western land speculations in those days. From about the year 1841, however, the improvement of Milwaukee has been rapid. In 1846, it was incorporated as a city. In 1840, the population was 1751; in 1850, 20,035; in 1860, 45,254; in 1870, 71,499.

MISCELLANY.

THE OLDEST MAN IN THE WORLD.

Joseph Crele died in Caledonia, a little town in Wisconsin, on the 27th of January, 1866. He was probably the oldest man in the world, being, at the time of his death, 141 years of age. He was born of French parents, in 1725, at a French trading-post, which has since grown into the present city of Detroit. The baptismal register of the Catholic Church in that city settles this fact positively. He lived in Wisconsin for about 100 years. He was at one time a French soldier, and bore arms at Braddock's defeat. He married in New Orleans in 1754, when nearly 30. A few years after his marriage, he settled at Prairie du Chien, while Wisconsin was still a province of France. Before the Revolutionary war, he was employed to carry letters between Prairie du Chien and Green Bay. A few years ago, he was called as a witness in the Circuit Court of Wisconsin, to give testimony relating to events that had transpired 80 years before. For some years before his death, the old gentleman resided with a daughter by his third wife at Caledonia. He was 69 when this child was born. Until 1864, Mr. Crele was as hearty and active as most men of 70. He could walk several miles without fatigue, and frequently chopped wood for the family use.

He cast his first vote for Washington, and after that never failed to vote at every election. He had no bad habits, except that he was a constant smoker. In person, he was rather above the medium height, spare in flesh, but showing evidences of having been in his prime—100 years ago—a man of powerful physical organization. During the last few years of his life, he experienced a haunting sense of loneliness, and would frequently exclaim with sadness that he feared Death had forgotten him.

MINNESOTA.

Area,	83,531 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	172,413
Population in 1870,	439,706

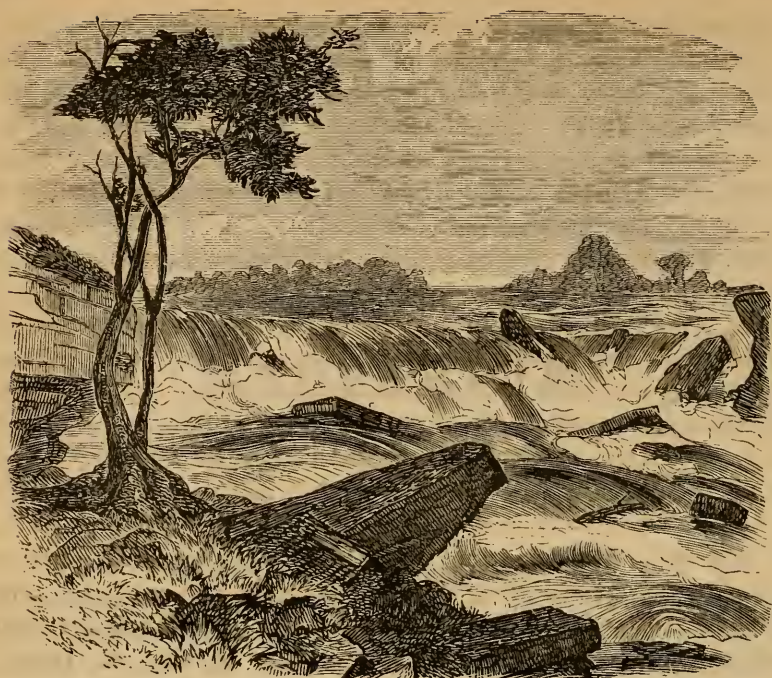
THE State of Minnesota is situated between 43° 30' and 49° N. latitude, and between 89° 30' and 97° W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by British America, on the east by Lake Superior and Wisconsin, on the south by Iowa, and on the west by Dakota Territory.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The State Government has recently published an excellent description of Minnesota, prepared by Col. Girart Hewitt, of St. Paul. We take the following from it:

"Although Minnesota is not a mountainous country by any means, its general elevation gives it all the advantages of one, without its objectionable features. Being equidistant from the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, situated on an elevated plateau, and with a system of lakes and rivers ample for an empire, it has a peculiar climate of its own, possessed by no other State. The general surface of the greater part of the State is even and undulating, and pleasantly diversified with rolling prairies, vast belts of timber, oak openings, numerous lakes and streams, with their accompanying meadows, waterfalls, wooded ravines, and lofty bluffs, which impart variety, grandeur and picturesque beauty to its scenery.

"The Mississippi River, 2400 miles long, which drains a larger region of country than any stream on the globe, with the exception of



FALLS OF ST ANTHONY.

the Amazon, rises in Lake Itasca, in the northern part of Minnesota, and flows southeasterly through the State 797 miles, 134 of which forms its eastern boundary. It is navigable for large boats to St. Paul, and above the Falls of St. Anthony for smaller boats for about 150 miles farther. The season of navigation has opened as early as the 25th of March, but usually opens from the first to the middle of April, and closes between the middle of November and the first of December. In 1865 and 1866, steamboat excursions took place on the first of December, from St. Paul, and the river remained open several days longer; in 1867 until December 1st. The principal towns and cities on the Mississippi in Minnesota, are, Winona, Wabashaw, Lake City, Red Wing, Hastings, St. Paul, Minneapolis, St. Anthony, Anoka, Dayton, Monticello, St. Cloud, Sauk Rapids, Little Falls, Watab. *The Minnesota River*, the source of which is among the Coteau des Prairies, in Dakota Territory, flows from Big Stone Lake, on the western boundary of the State, a distance of nearly 500 miles, through the heart of the southwestern part of the State, and empties into the Mississippi at Fort Snelling, 5 miles above St. Paul.

It is navigable as high up as the Yellow Medicine, 238 miles above its mouth during good stages of water. Its principal places are Shakopee, Chaska, Carver, Belle Plaine, Henderson, Le Sueur, Traverse des Sioux, St. Peter, Mankato, and New Ulm. *The St. Croix River*, rising in Wisconsin, near Lake Superior, forms about 130 miles of the eastern boundary of the State. It empties into the Mississippi nearly opposite Hastings, and is navigable to Taylor's Fall, about 50 miles. It penetrates the pineries, and furnishes immense water-power along its course. The principal places on it are Stillwater and Taylor's Falls. *The Red River* rises in Lake Traverse, and flows northward, forming the western boundary of the State from Big Stone Lake to the British possessions, a distance of 380 miles. It is navigable from Breckenridge, at the mouth of the Bois de Sioux River, to Hudson's Bay; the Saskatchewan, a tributary of the Red River, is also said to be a navigable stream, thus promising an active commercial trade from this vast region when it shall have become settled up, *viâ* the St. Paul and Pacific Railroad, which connects the navigable waters of the Red River with those of the Mississippi. Among the more important of the numerous small streams are Rum River, valuable for lumbering; Vermilion River, furnishing extensive water-power, and possessing some of the finest cascades in the United States; the Crow, Blue Earth Root, Sauk, Le Sueur, Zumbro, Cottonwood, Long Prairie, Red Wood, Waraju, Pejuta Ziza, Mauja, Wakau, Buffalo, Wild Rice, Plum, Sand Hill, Clear Water, Red Lake, Thief Black, Red Cedar, and Des Moines rivers; the St. Louis River, a large stream flowing into Lake Superior, navigable for 20 miles from its lake outlet, and furnishing a water-power at its falls said to be equal to that of the Falls of the Mississippi at St. Anthony, and many others, besides all the innumerable hosts of first and secondary tributaries to all the larger streams."

Lake Superior washes the eastern boundary of the State for a distance of 167 miles, and has several fine harbors. Minnesota is thickly studded with small lakes, which abound in fish and game, and give a rich beauty to the landscape. Professor Maury says that Minnesota is the best watered State in the Union, although one of the farthest from the sea, owing its abundant summer rains to the presence of these lakes.

MINERALS.

Iron is abundant along the shores of Lake Superior. Copper is found in small quantities. Coal and red pipe-clay are the other mine-

als. Gold quartz has been found in Carlton county, and gold and silver about 80 miles northwest of Lake Superior.

CLIMATE.

Minnesota has been so strongly recommended as a resort for invalids, that the following remarks upon the climate, taken from the work of Colonel Hewitt, will be found interesting.

"The assertion that the climate of Minnesota is one of the healthiest in the world, may be broadly and confidently made. It is sustained by the almost unanimous testimony of thousands of invalids who have sought its pure and bracing air, and recovered from consumption and other diseases after they had been given up as hopeless by their home physicians; it is sustained by the experience of its inhabitants for twenty years; and it is sustained by the published statistics of mortality in the different States. Minnesota is entirely exempt from *malaria*, and consequently the numerous diseases known to arise from it, such as chills and fever, autumnal fevers, *ague cake* or enlarged spleen, enlargement of the liver, etc., dropsy, diseases of the kidneys, affections of the eye, and various bilious diseases, and derangements of the stomach and bowels, although sometimes arising from other causes, are often due wholly to malarious agency, and are only temporarily relieved by medicine, because the patient is constantly exposed to the malarious influence which generates them. Enlargement of the liver and spleen is very common in southern and southwestern States. We are not only free from those ailments, but by coming to Minnesota, often without any medical treatment at all, patients speedily recover from this class of diseases; the miasmatic poison being soon eliminated from the system, and not being exposed to its further inception, the functions of health are gradually resumed. Diarrhœa and dysentery are not so prevalent as in warmer latitudes, and are of a milder type. Pneumonia and typhoid fever are very seldom met with, and then merely as sporadic cases. Diseases of an epidemic character never have been known to prevail here. 'Even that dreadful scourge, diphtheria, which, like a destroying angel, swept through portions of the country, leaving desolation in its train, passed us by with scarce a grave to mark its course. The diseases common to infancy and childhood partake of the same mild character, and seldom prove fatal.' This is the language of Mrs. Colburn, an authoress, and the experience of physicians corroborates this opinion. That dreadful scourge of the human family, the *cholera*, is alike unknown

here. During the summer of 1866, while hundreds were daily cut down by this visitation in New York, Cincinnati, St. Louis, and other places, and it prevailed to an alarming extent in Chicago, not a single case made its appearance in Minnesota. Another, and a very large class of invalids, who derive great benefit from the climate of Minnesota, are those whose systems have become relaxed, debilitated, and broken down by over-taxation of the mental and physical energies, dyspepsia, etc."

SOIL AND PRODUCTS.

"The prevailing soil of Minnesota," says the work quoted above, "is a dark, calcareous, sandy loam, containing a various intermixture of clay, abounding in mineral salts and in organic ingredients, derived from the accumulation of decomposed vegetable matter for long ages of growth and decay. The sand, of which silica is the base, forms a large proportion of this, as of all good soils. It plays an important part in the economy of growth, and is an essential constituent in the organism of all cereals. About 67 per cent. of the ash of the stems of wheat, corn, rye, barley, oats and sugar-cane, is pure silica or flint. It is this which gives the glazed coating to the plants, and gives strength to the stalk."

In 1869, the agricultural returns were as follows :

Acres of improved land,	1,611,594
Bushels of wheat,	17,271,968
" oats,	10,762,209
" Indian corn,	4,236,822
" barley,	1,256,686
" buckwheat,	51,684
" rye,	75,866
" Irish potatoes,	1,633,453
" apples,	9,932
Tons of hay, (cultivated)	73,694
" (wild)	543,753
Pounds of butter,	6,593,528
" wool,	385,766
Number of horses,	45,780
" milch cows,	60,740
" mules and asses,	578
" sheep,	27,890
" swine,	150,880
" cattle,	98,479
Value of domestic animals,	\$6,642,841

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.

Manufactures are still in their infancy. In 1870 the State contained 2270 manufacturing establishments, producing products valued at \$23,110,700 annually.

The great export is lumber, which, in 1870, was valued at \$4,538,-
804. St. Paul maintains an active trade along the upper Mississippi.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

Early in 1872, there were 1612 miles of completed railroads in Minnesota, constructed at a cost of about \$60,000,000. St. Paul, and the principal towns in the southeast part of the State, are connected with each other, and with Chicago and St. Louis, through Wisconsin and Illinois. The Northern Pacific Railroad is being constructed across the northern part of the State from Lake Superior westward.

EDUCATION.

Minnesota possesses a State university and three normal schools, all of which are in flourishing condition. The first is liberally endowed by the State. The Governor, in his last annual message, says: "Minnesota has a larger number of school-houses than any other State of the same population and taxable property. Her total expenditures for school purposes during the last two years exceeded \$1,500,000, and her school-houses have already cost over \$100,000." The State has a permanent school fund arising from the sales of public lands, and amounting to \$2,476,222. There are lands enough on hand, if judiciously disposed of, to increase this fund to \$15,000,000. Taxes are levied for the support of the schools.

The system of education is under the supervision of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, who is elected by the people for two years, and reports annually to the Legislature. The first superintendent was elected in 1867, the duties of the office having been previously discharged by the Secretary of State. Each county is provided with a County Superintendent, but the immediate management of each school is vested in a Board of Trustees.

In 1870, the number of school districts was 2626 ; the number of

teachers 4111; and the number of pupils 110,590. The whole amount expended for school purposes was \$857,816.

In 1870 there were 50 private schools in the State, attended by 4316 pupils.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The State Prison is at Stillwater. It is in excellent condition, and in November, 1867, contained 45 convicts. A *Reform School* has recently been opened by the State at St. Paul. In 1870, it contained 82 inmates. The charitable institutions of Minnesota have been but recently established, but are prosperous and of a high character. The State authorities are determined that they shall be second to none in the Union.

The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, and the Blind, is located at Faribault. It is provided with fine buildings, and ample grounds, and contains about 87 deaf mutes and blind persons.

The Hospital for Insane is at St. Peter. Patients are now accommodated in temporary quarters; but handsome and commodious buildings are being erected by the State. In 1870, there were 100 patients under treatment.

LIBRARIES AND NEWSPAPERS.

In 1870, there were 1412 libraries in Minnesota, containing 360,810 volumes; and in the same year, there were 6 daily, and 89 other newspapers, with an aggregate annual circulation of 9,543,656 copies, published in the State.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, there were 582 churches in Minnesota. The value of church property was \$2,401,750.

FINANCES.

The Constitution of Minnesota limits the loans of the State. At the close of 1874, the State debt was about \$480,000. The receipts of the Treasury for the year 1873 were \$1,331,210, and the expenditures \$1,148,059.

In 1868, there were 15 National banks, with a capital of \$1,710,000, doing business in the State.

GOVERNMENT.

The Constitution of this State was adopted in 1856, and grants the right to vote at the elections to all male persons over 21 years of age, who are of the following classes, viz. : citizens of the United States ; foreigners who have legally declared their intention to become citizens ; civilized persons of mixed white and Indian blood ; and Indians not belonging to any tribe, who have been pronounced capable of voting by any District Court. The last named class must have adopted the language, customs, and habits of the whites, and must have resided in the United States one year, in the State four months, and in the district ten days preceding the election.

The Government is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Auditor, Treasurer, and Attorney-General, and a Legislature, consisting of a Senate and House of Representatives, all chosen by the people. The Senators, 22 in number, are elected for two years, one half annually. The Representatives number 47, and are elected annually. The Auditor is chosen for three years, the rest of the State officers for two years. The general election is held in November, and the Legislature meets annually, on the Tuesday after the first Monday in January.

The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court (elected for seven years), District Courts, Courts of Probate, and in Justices of the Peace. The Legislature has power to establish from time to time such other Courts, inferior to the Supreme Court, as may be found necessary. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and two Associates. All judges are elected by the people.

The seat of Government is established at St. Paul.

The State is divided into 64 counties.

HISTORY.

The State of Minnesota derives its name from an Indian word signifying "sky-tinted water." It was first entered by a Frenchman named Daniel Greysolou du Luth, in 1678. In 1679 Father Hennepin, and two others who had formed a part of La Salle's expedition, accompanied the Indians to their village, 180 miles above the Falls of St. Anthony, to which they gave the name borne by the cataract to-day. In 1689 the territory was formally taken possession of in the name of the French king by Perrot and his companions. They built a fort on the west shore of Lake Pepin, just above its

entrance. In 1695 a second fort was built by Le Sueur, on an island in the Mississippi, just below the mouth of the St. Croix. In 1700 he built a fort on the Minnesota. The fur traders now came into the territory in great numbers, but no permanent settlement was made for purposes of colonization. In 1763 Captain Jonathan Carver, of Connecticut, visited Minnesota, and published a description of the country.

In 1800 that part of the present State of Minnesota lying east of the Mississippi River was included in the Territory of Indiana. In 1803 the purchase of Louisiana placed the United States in possession of the lands west of the Mississippi. Fort Snelling was erected in 1819, and garrisoned by the United States. The territory was already the seat of an active trade with the Indians, and the Government had some trouble in enforcing its regulations among the traders. Minnesota was explored in 1820 by General Lewis Cass, and in 1823 by Major Long. A third exploring party was sent out in 1832 under Henry R. Schoolcraft, who discovered the source of the Mississippi River. Frequent surveys and explorations were made after this, until the region became very well known.

In 1842 the town of St. Paul was founded, and emigrants commenced to settle in the territory. In 1849 the Territory of Minnesota was organized by Congress. The population was estimated at 4857 souls, and one half of the lands included in the new Territory were still the property of the Indians. Emigrants came in fast, however, and in 1857 the population was ascertained by a census to be 150,037. In 1856 Congress authorized the people of the Territory to form a State Constitution, which was done, and on the 11th of May, 1858, Minnesota was admitted into the Union as a sovereign State.

During the late war, the State contributed a force of 24,263 men to the service of the United States.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, there is no large city in the State. The most important places are, Minneapolis, St. Anthony, Winona, Rochester, Austin, Faribault, and Henderson.

ST. PAUL,

In Ramsey county, is the capital of the State. It is situated on the left bank of the Mississippi River, 2070 miles from its mouth, 9 miles by land below the Falls of St. Anthony, and 400 miles northwest of Chicago. Latitude 44° 52' 46'' N.; longitude 93° 5' W.



ST. PAUL.

The city is built on a bluff 70 or 80 feet above the level of the river. The sides of this bluff have been gradually graded until they now form a succession of terraces, upon which the greater part of the business portion is located. Considering the difficulties to be overcome, the city is regularly laid out, and is well built. Limestone of an excellent quality is abundant in the vicinity, and has been largely used in building, thus giving to the place an appearance of elegance and solidity. The streets are wide, well paved, and shaded with trees.

The principal buildings are the *State House*, built of brick, 143 by 50 feet; the *State Arsenal*; the *New Opera House*; and the *Athenæum*.

The city contains 21 or 22 churches, several public and private schools and colleges, 1 or 2 public libraries, and 4 or 5 newspaper offices. It is lighted with gas, and is supplied with water. It is governed by a Mayor and Common Council. In 1870 the population was 20,031.

St. Paul is connected with Chicago and Milwaukee by railway, and also with Duluth at the head of Lake Superior.

I O W A .

Area,	55,045 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	674,913
Population in 1870,	1,194,020

THE State of Iowa is situated between $40^{\circ} 30'$ and $43^{\circ} 30'$ N. latitude, and between 90° and 97° W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Minnesota, on the east by Wisconsin and Illinois, from which it is separated by the Mississippi River, on the south by Missouri, and on the west by Nebraska and Dakota Territory.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The surface of the State is generally a fine rolling prairie. The highest land in the State, Table Mound, is not over 500 feet high. In the north west there is a rugged region called the "Coteau des Prairies."

The Mississippi River forms the eastern boundary of the State, and receives the waters of the Des Moines (beginning on the south), Skunk, Iowa, Wapsipinicon, Makoqueta, and Upper Iowa. Davenport, Burlington, and Dubuque are the principal towns on the Mississippi. *The Des Moines River* is the principal stream lying within the State. It rises in the extreme southern part of Minnesota, and flows southeast across Iowa into the Mississippi, at Keokuk, dividing the State almost exactly in half. It is about 450 miles long, and at high water is navigable for light draught steamers for 250 miles. It flows through an undulating country abounding in rich prairies. *The Iowa River* rises in the northern part of the State, in Hancock county, and flows southeast into the Mississippi. It is about 300 miles long, and is navigable to Iowa city, 80 miles, at high water. Its principal branch is the *Red Cedar River*, which rises in the southern part of

Minnesota, and flows southeast into it about 25 or 30 miles from its mouth. It is about 300 miles long, and is a fine mill stream. *The Missouri River* forms the western boundary from Sioux City to the Missouri line, and receives the waters of the Big and Little Sioux and several smaller streams. The principal towns on the Missouri are Sioux City and Council Bluffs. A number of the tributaries of the Missouri rise in the southern counties, and flow southward into the State of Missouri.

Several small lakes lie in the Northern counties, the principal of which is Spirit Lake, in Dickinson county.

MINERALS.

The coal beds of this State are immense, and are said to underlie an area of 20,000 square miles. In some places they are more than 100 feet thick, and as they lie near the surface can be worked at a slight expense. "The lead mines of the northeast, of which Dubuque is the centre, are continuous of those in Wisconsin, and are being extensively and profitably worked. Zinc occurs in the fissures along with the lead, and copper is also found in this region and along the Cedar River. Iron ore exists in considerable quantities, but is not much worked. Many portions of the State are underlaid with limestone, and building stone of several varieties exists, the Annamosa quarries, of Jones county, ranking among the best in the State. Gypsum also appears in limited quantities, and peat abounds in a number of counties, one bed in Sac county containing over 300 acres, from 3 to 9 feet in thickness."

CLIMATE.

The climate is milder than that of Minnesota and Wisconsin. The "Hand-Book of Iowa" thus speaks of it: "Our spring usually commences in March, and by the middle of April the prairies are green, with mild, beautiful weather. In May, all the face of nature is covered with flowers, and the foliage of the prairies bends before the breeze like the waves of an enchanted lake, whilst the whole atmosphere is scented with the breath of flowers. At all seasons of the year, a gentle breeze is fanning the prairies, and a day is never so sultry but that a cooling breath comes to moderate the melting temperature. The evening twilights are beautiful, in most seasons of the year, continuing nearly two hours after sunset. Ten months in the year our roads are hard, smooth and dry. In autumn, the weather, with little exception, is usually pleasant and fine until near December. Winter brings us

very little snow, some years not amounting to more than six or eight inches altogether; the weather through the winter being mostly made up of cool, sunshiny days and clear frosty nights. High, dry, salubrious, and rolling, with most excellent water and a bracing atmosphere, consumption was never known to seize a victim here. On the streams the ague and fever sometimes intrudes, with fevers, occasionally, of other types; but, as the country becomes settled and cultivated, these disappear and are unknown."

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The soil is generally fertile and easily cultivated. In this respect, Iowa is one of the most desirable States in the Union.

"Corn, wheat, oats, and hay, are the great staples of Iowa, being grown to a greater or less extent in every county in the State, with the addition of rye, barley, buckwheat, tobacco, etc., in limited quantities. The corn crop of 1866 reached over 52,000,000 of bushels, with an acreage of upwards of 1,600,000, the crop being valued at about \$23,000,000, or an average of between \$14 and \$15 per acre gross. The wheat crop of the same year reached nearly 16,000,000 bushels upon something less than 1,000,000 acres, the crop being estimated at about \$22,000,000, or an average of about \$22 to the acre, gross product. The wheat crop is the principal market product, other crops being largely worked up at home and sent abroad in more condensed form, as beef, pork, wool, etc."*

There are over 9,000,000 acres of improved land in the State. The principal returns are as follows:

Bushels of wheat,	29,000,000
" Indian corn,	70,000,000
" oats,	21,000,000
" Irish potatoes,	6,000,000
" rye,	540,000
" buckwheat,	160,000
Tons of hay,	1,800,000
Pounds of butter,	28,000,000
Number of horses,	450,000
" mules and asses,	25,485
" milch cows,	375,000
" sheep,	900,000
" swine,	1,360,000
" cattle,	625,000
Value of domestic animals,	\$83,000,000
Pounds of wool,	3,000,000

* Agricultural Report (U. S.) for 1868.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

Iowa has no foreign commerce, but possesses a brisk trade along the Missouri and Mississippi rivers, and with St. Louis and Chicago.

Manufactures are yet in their infancy. In 1870, the capital invested in them amounted to \$22,420,183. They yielded an annual product of \$46,534,322.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In 1872, there were 3160 miles of completed railroads in Iowa, constructed at a cost of over \$60,000,000. The principal towns are connected with each other, and with all parts of the Union. The great lines connecting with the Pacific railway, terminate at Council Bluffs in this State, which lies opposite Omaha, in Nebraska. The conformation of the surface of the State renders the construction of railroads cheap and easy. The State is showing an energy in extending and perfecting her railroad system which must greatly add to her wealth and population.

EDUCATION.

The State University, at Iowa City, is a flourishing institution, and has an endowment of nearly \$200,000. It has a Normal department, which has produced many excellent teachers, but efforts are being made for the establishment of separate normal schools. Besides this University, there are 4 universities, and 7 colleges in the State, all doing well. The State has an Agricultural College, which is said to be one of the best and most flourishing institutions of its kind in the Union.

The educational system is under the supervision of a State Superintendent of Public Instruction. The counties have each a separate Superintendent, and the districts have their own Boards of Directors, who have the immediate charge of the schools. The annual expenditures for the support of the schools now exceeds \$3,000,000. There is a permanent school fund, and taxes are levied for the benefit of the schools. In 1870, there were 7332 public schools in the State, attended by 205,923 pupils.

Besides these there are over fifty seminaries and academies, and a number of private schools in the State, from which we have no recent returns.

In 1870, there were 3540 libraries in the State, containing 673,600 volumes.

In the same year, there were 233 newspapers and periodicals (22 of which were daily) published in the State, their total annual circulation was 16,403,380 copies.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The Penitentiary is located at Fort Madison, and in 1867 contained 160 convicts. The labor of the prisoners is let out to contractors, and the institution is almost self-sustaining. The commutation system has been successfully introduced, and great care is taken to reform as well as punish the inmates.

The Deaf and Dumb Asylum is at Iowa City, but will soon be removed to Council Bluffs, and provided with more extensive facilities. In 1867, it contained 75 pupils, about one-fifth of the whole number of deaf mutes in the State.

The Institution for the Blind is at Vinton, and contains about 50 pupils. It is free to all blind persons residing in Iowa, and pupils are taken from other States at moderate rates.

The Hospital for Insane, is at Mount Pleasant, and is a flourishing institution. Additional accommodations are needed. In 1867, it contained 344 inmates.

The State makes an appropriation for the support of *Homes for Soldiers' Orphans* at Davenport, Cedar Falls, and Glenwood.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, there were 1446 churches in Iowa. The value of church property was \$5,720,352.

FINANCES.

The State debt amounts to a little over \$300,000, and was contracted principally on account of the late war. It is fully secured. The appropriations of the State in 1874 amounted to \$723,170.

In 1868 there were 44 National banks, with a capital of \$4,057,000, doing business in the State.

GOVERNMENT.

Every male citizen of the United States, who has resided in the State six months, and in the county sixty days, except persons in the military or naval service of the Union, idiots, insane persons, or

convicts, is entitled to vote at the elections. Negroes were admitted to the franchise in 1868.

The Government is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Auditor, Treasurer, and Attorney-General, and a Legislature consisting of a Senate and a House of Representatives. The State officers are elected for two years, the Senators for four years, one half retiring biennially, and the Representatives for two years. The sessions of the Legislature are biennial.

The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court, District Court, and such other inferior courts as may be established by the Legislature. These last consist of 28 Circuit Courts established by the Legislature in 1868. The Supreme Court consists of four judges elected by the people for six years. The judge having the shortest term to serve is the Chief Justice. All judges in this State are elected.

The seat of Government is established at Des Moines.

The State is divided into 99 counties.

HISTORY.

This State derives its name from the tribe of Iowa Indians who inhabited a large portion of it. It was originally a part of Louisiana, and was included in the territory purchased from France by the United States in 1803. The first white settlement was made by Julien Dubuque, an Indian trader, who founded the city which bears his name. He married an Indian woman and became a famous chief among the savages, and as early as 1800, commenced to work the lead mines with the natives.

In 1830, a severe war broke out between the various Indian tribes. The Sacs and Foxes, who inhabited the mining region, were driven away by the Sioux. Later in the same year a number of miners came out to the lead mines which had been abandoned by the Indians, and commenced to work them. They were driven away by Captain Zachary Taylor, then commanding the United States forces at Prairie du Chien, in Wisconsin. He stationed a force of soldiers at Dubuque, and held possession of it until 1832, when the Black Hawk War began. After the war was over the miners went back to Dubuque.

Upon the return of peace, the Sacs and Foxes were compelled to cede a portion of their lands to the United States, as indemnity for the expenses of the war. This tract extended nearly 300 miles north of Missouri, and was about 50 miles wide. It is usually known as the "*Black Hawk Purchase*." Other lands were purchased from

the Indians for \$1,000,000, and the present limits of Iowa cleared of Indian titles.

The first white settlement in these purchases was made at Fort Madison (in the present county of Lee), late in 1832, and, in 1835, the town was regularly laid off. In 1833, Burlington was founded, and Dubuque received a large addition to its population. In 1835, a number of Quakers emigrated to the territory, and settled the town of Salem. Other settlements sprang up rapidly in various parts of the new country, and, in 1836, the population of the District of Iowa numbered 10,531 souls. The District of Iowa, which included nearly all the settlements west of the Mississippi for about 100 miles north of the Des Moines River, was attached to the District of Wisconsin, then a part of Michigan Territory, for convenience of government.

In 1838, the Territory of Iowa was formally organized by Congress, and given a separate Government. The population at this time numbered 22,860 souls. A heavy emigration now set in from New England and New York, and from Europe, and, in 1840, Iowa Territory contained, according to the Sixth Census of the United States, 43,114 inhabitants.

“Such had been the increase of emigration, previous to 1843, that the Legislature of Iowa made formal application for authority to adopt a State Constitution. At the following session of Congress, an Act was passed to ‘enable the people of the Iowa Territory to form a State Government.’ A Convention assembled in September, and on the 7th of October, 1844, adopted a Constitution for the proposed ‘State of Iowa;’ it being the fourth State organized within the limits of the province of Louisiana. By the year 1844, the population of Iowa had increased to 81,921 persons; yet the people were subjected to disappointment in the contemplated change of government. The Constitution adopted by the Convention evinced the progress of republican feeling, and the strong democratic tendency so prominent in all the new States. The Constitution for Iowa extended the right of suffrage to every free white male citizen of the United States who had resided six months in the State, and one month in the county, previous to his application for the right of voting. The judiciary were all to be elected by the people for a term of four years, and all other officers, both civil and military, were to be elected by the people at stated periods. Chartered monopolies were not tolerated, and no act of incorporation was permitted to remain in force more than twenty years, unless it were designed for public improvements or literary purposes; and the

personal as well as the real estate of the members of all corporations was liable for the debts of the same. The Legislature was prohibited from creating any debt in the name of the State exceeding \$100,000, unless it were for defence in case of war, invasion, or insurrection; and in such case, the bill creating the debt should, at the same time, provide the ways and means for its redemption. Such were some of the prominent features of the first Constitution adopted for the State of Iowa. Yet the State was not finally organized under this Constitution, and the people of Iowa remained under the territorial form of government until the close of the year 1846.

"The Constitution of Iowa having been approved by Congress, an Act was passed March 3, 1845, for the admission of the 'State of Iowa' into the Federal Union simultaneously with the 'State of Florida,' upon the condition that the people of Iowa, at a subsequent general election, assent to the restricted limits imposed by Congress, in order to conform with the general area of other western States; but the people of Iowa refused to ratify the restricted limits prescribed for the new State, a majority of nearly 2000 in the popular vote having rejected the terms of admission. Hence, Iowa remained under the territorial government until the beginning of 1846, when the people, through their Legislature, acquiesced in the prescribed limits, and Congress authorized the formation of another Constitution, preparatory to the admission of Iowa into the Union.

"The people of Iowa, in 1846, assented to the restriction of limits, and the formation of a territorial government over the remaining waste territory lying north and west of the limits prescribed by Congress. Petitions, with numerous signatures, demanded the proposed restriction by the organization of a separate Territory, to be designated and known as the 'Dacotah Territory,' comprising the Indian territory beyond the organized settlements of Iowa. Congress accordingly authorized a second Convention for the adoption of another State Constitution, and this Convention assembled in May, 1846, and adopted another Constitution, which was submitted to Congress in June following. In August, 1846, the State of Iowa was formally admitted into the Union, and the first State election was, by the proclamation of Governor Clarke, to be held on the 26th day of October following. In the ensuing December, the first State Legislature met at Iowa City." *

* Monette.

During the Rebellion Iowa contributed 75,860 men to the military service of the United States.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the principal cities and towns are, Dubuque, Davenport, Burlington, Keokuk, Muscatine, Council Bluffs, Iowa City, and Fort Madison.

DES MOINES,

In Polk county, is the capital of the State. It is situated at the confluence of the Des Moines and Raccoon Rivers, at the head of steamboat navigation on the Des Moines. It is 175 miles west of Davenport, and 140 miles east of Council Bluffs. It lies in the exact geographical centre of the State, and in the midst of a smooth valley, rising on all sides, by successive benches, back to the gently sloping hills, which finally attain a height of about 200 feet. The scenery in the vicinity is very beautiful. The city is laid off with wide streets, and is being well built. The State capitol is at present a plain structure, situated on a commanding eminence. It is designed to replace it at an early day by a building worthy of the State. The city already contains 11 churches, several flourishing public and private schools, and 3 newspaper offices. It is lighted with gas, and is governed by a Mayor and Council. It has railway communication with the important towns of the State. Steamers ascend the Des Moines from the Mississippi to this point. The city contains several founderies, and machine shops. The river furnishes abundant water-power, and stone coal is found in the vicinity. In 1870, the population was 12,035.

Des Moines was originally the council ground of the Indians. It was afterwards the site of Fort Des Moines, selected by the officers of the United States army. It was for a long time known as Fort Des Moines. In 1855 the State capital was transferred to this place from Iowa City.

DAVENPORT,

In Scott county, is the largest and most important city in the State. It is beautifully situated on the right bank of the Mississippi at the foot of Upper Rapids, 330 miles above St. Louis, 184 miles west-by-south of Chicago, and 175 miles east of Des Moines. The city lies at the base of a bluff, which rises gradually from the river. It



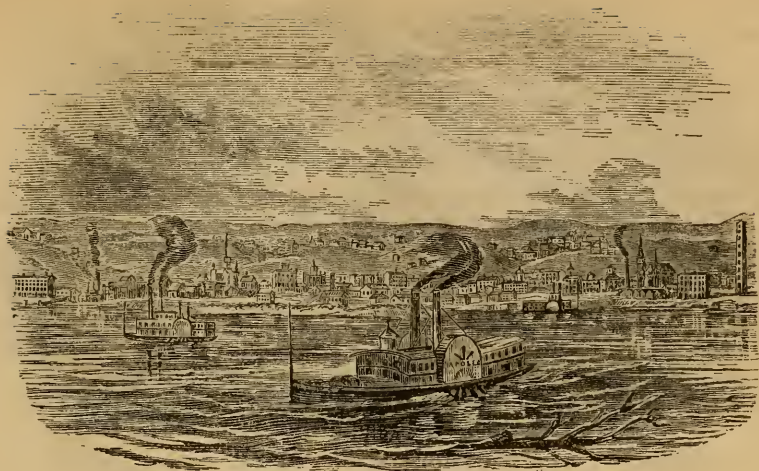
DAVENPORT.

is connected with the town of Rock Island, in Illinois, on the opposite side of the river, by a handsome bridge.

The city is regularly laid out, and is well built, brick and stone entering largely into the construction of its houses. It contains the county buildings, about 13 churches, a high school, and several good public and private schools, and 3 newspaper offices. *Griswold College*, a flourishing institution, is located here. The city is lighted with gas, and is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 20,042. Nearly one-half of the inhabitants are Germans.

There is railway communication with all parts of the country, and the city conducts an active trade along the river. Manufactures are carried on to a considerable extent. Cotton and woollen cloth, of an excellent quality, are made here. Stone coal is found in great quantities in the neighborhood, and, as a consequence, the mills are worked chiefly by steam-power. The rapids of the Mississippi extend for about 20 miles above the city, and during the season of low water seriously interfere with the navigation of the river.

Davenport was first settled in 1837, and derives its name from Colonel George Davenport, who was born in England, in 1783. He came to America at an early age, entered the United States army, as a sergeant, and did good service on the frontier in the war of 1812. At the return of peace, he settled on Rock Island, opposite the pre-



DUBUQUE.

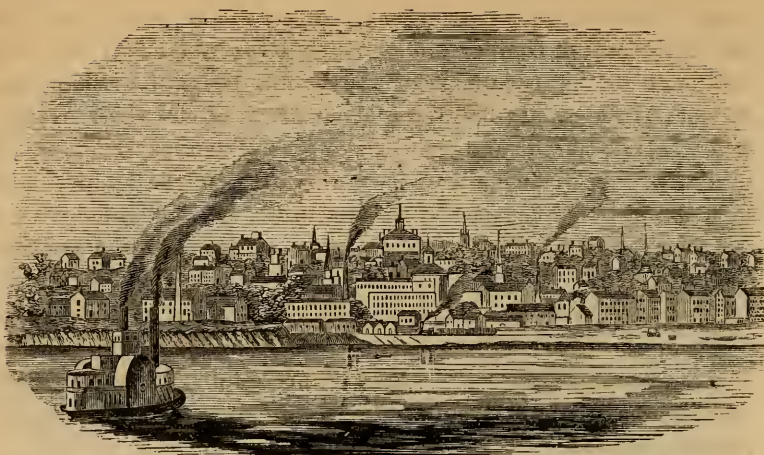
sent city of Davenport, from which he carried on a trade in furs with the Indians. He was killed by a band of robbers, who were engaged in plundering his house, on the 4th of July, 1845.

DUBUQUE,

The second city of the State, is situated in the county of the same name, on the right bank of the Mississippi, 450 miles above St. Louis.

The city is one of the most beautiful and attractive in the West. It is built partly upon a terrace, which extends several miles along the river, and partly upon a bluff, which rises 200 feet higher. The lower part of the city is laid out with great regularity; but the portion upon the bluff is made to conform to the irregularities of the surface. The city is substantially built, and contains many handsome edifices. The principal public buildings are the *United States Custom House*, the *City Hall*, and the *Market House*. Many of the business houses are handsomely built, and some of the residences are noted for their elegance, while, as a rule, all are neat and tasteful. The scenery in the vicinity is very beautiful, the country being occupied with highly cultivated farms, orchards and vineyards.

The city contains about 18 churches, 3 free schools, and several private schools, and 5 newspapers, 3 of which are German. *The Dubuque Female College*, *Alexander College* (Presbyterian), and the *Epis-*



BURLINGTON.

epal Seminary are flourishing institutions. The city is lighted with gas, is supplied with water, and is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 18,434. Many of the inhabitants are Germans. Dubuque is engaged in a large river trade, and is the shipping point for an extensive grain-growing section. It is connected with St. Paul and St. Louis by regular lines of packets. It is also the great depot for the lead mining region west of the Mississippi. Some of the best mines in the State are either within the corporate limits, or in the immediate vicinity. The annual shipment of lead from Dubuque is in the neighborhood of 10,000,000 pounds. There is railway communication with all parts of the Union.

In 1788, Julien Dubuque, a French trader, built a trading house at this place; but his colony was driven away by the Indians. He instructed the Indians in the manner of working the lead mines. In 1833, the actual permanent settlement of the place began, and, in 1847, it was incorporated as a city. It is one of the most enterprising and prosperous towns in the West, and is growing rapidly.

BURLINGTON,

In Des Moines county, is the third city of the State. It is situated on the right bank of the Mississippi River, 45 miles above Keokuk, 248 miles above St. Louis, and 210 miles southwest of Chicago. It is regularly laid out, and beautifully situated. Part of the city is built on the bluffs, which rise, in some places, 200 feet above the river.

From these heights a magnificent prospect of the broad, clear river, and the beautiful country along its shores, is obtained. The city is well built, the larger number of the houses being of brick or stone. It contains the county buildings, about 13 or 14 churches, several excellent schools, public and private, and several newspaper offices. It is the seat of the *Burlington University*, conducted by the Baptist Church. It is also actively engaged in manufactures. It is lighted with gas, and is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 14,030.

There is railway communication with Chicago, and all the important points of the State. The river trade is valuable, and is increasing. The country, for sixty miles around Burlington, is sometimes called "the garden of Iowa," and of this fertile region Burlington is the principal market.

Burlington was the home of the famous Indian chief Black Hawk, whose bones lie buried here.

MISCELLANY.

FRONTIER JUSTICE.

In the year 1836, was organized a band of horse-thieves, counterfeiters, and highway robbers, having their headquarters near Elk Heart, Michigan, and extending their ramifications in all directions from that point many hundred miles. The Rock River Valley, Illinois, and the settled portions of what is now Iowa, were the chief points of their operations, although the band extended through Kentucky, Missouri, and even to the Cherokee Nation.

Their organization was complete. They had their passwords, and other means of recognition. No great master spirit controlled the whole organization, as is usually the case in criminal associations of that nature. The leaders were those whose education rendered them superior to the instincts of the half savage settlers with whom they were associated.

Their method of doing business, and escaping detection, was as follows: B.'s band, in Iowa, would "spot" certain horses and other "plunder," and arrange to make a foray on some particular night. A., in Missouri, having obtained the knowledge of this, would start his band on a marauding expedition the same night. But those who were to do the plundering would make a feint to go north or south on a trading expedition, a day or two before the time fixed upon, and, returning at night, would be carefully concealed until the proper time, when they would sally forth on the expedition in earnest. The two bands then meeting half way, would exchange the stolen property, and returning, dispose of the plunder, perhaps to the very persons whom they had robbed a few nights before.

Those of the band who were merely accomplices, were careful to be visiting some honest neighbor on the night of the robbery, and thus avert suspicion from themselves. By this means, it will be seen that detection was almost impossible, and suspicion unlikely to rest upon the real perpetrators.

The then frontier village of Bellevue was a central point on this route, and

also the headquarters of one of the most numerous and powerful of the bands. Its leader, William Brown, was a man remarkable in many respects. He came to Bellevue in the spring of 1836, and soon after brought out his family and opened a public house, which was destined to become famous in the village history. Brown, physically, was a powerful man, and in education superior to those around him. He possessed a pleasant, kindly address, and was scrupulously honest in his every day's dealings with his neighbors. It is said that none who reposed confidence in him in a business transaction ever regretted it. He was ably seconded by his wife, a woman of about 24 years of age, and of more than ordinary natural capacity. They had but one child, a little girl of some 4 years of age. Ever ready to assist the destitute, the foremost in public improvements, this family soon became idolized by the rude population of that early day, so that nothing but positive proof finally fastened suspicions of dishonesty upon them. Having, by his wiles, seduced a larger part of the young men into his band, and being daily reinforced from other quarters, Brown became more bold in his operations, then threw off the mask, and openly boasted of his power and the inability of the authorities to crush him out. It was no idle boast. Fully two-thirds of the able bodied men in the settlement were leagued with him. He never participated in passing counterfeit money, stealing horses, etc., but simply planned.

Any man who incurred the enmity of the "gang," was very certain to wake some morning and find his crops destroyed, his horses stolen, and the marks of his cattle having been slaughtered in his own yard; in all probability the hind-quarters of his favorite ox would be offered for sale at his own door a few hours thereafter. If one of his gang was arrested, Brown stood ready to defend him, with an argument not now always attainable by the legal profession—he could, at a moment's notice, prove an *alibi*. Thus matters went on, until it became apparent to the honest portion of the community that the crisis had arrived.

As an instance of the boldness which they evinced, now the band had become so powerful, we give an incident of the stealing of a plow from a steamboat. In the spring of 1839, a steamboat landed at Bellevue *to wood*; the boat was crowded with passengers, and the hurricane deck covered with plows. It being a pleasant day, the citizens, old and young, according to custom, had sallied forth to the river-side, as the landing of a steamboat was then by no means a daily occurrence. The writer of this, standing near Brown, heard him remark to a man named Hapgood, and in the presence of numerous citizens, "that as he (Hapgood) had long wanted to join Brown's party, if he would steal one of those plows, and thus prove his qualifications, he should be admitted to full fellowship." Hapgood agreed to make the trial, and thereupon, to our surprise, as we had supposed the conversation to be merely in jest, he went upon the hurricane deck, and, in the presence of the captain, passengers, and citizens on shore, shouldered a plow and marched off the boat and up the levee. When on the boat, Hapgood conversed with the captain for a few minutes, and the captain pointed out to him which plow to take. In a few moments the boat was gone, and Hapgood boasted of the theft. It was supposed that he had bought the plow and paid the captain for it, but the next day, when the boat returned, there was great and anxious inquiry, by the captain, "for the man that took that plow," but he had disappeared, and remained out of sight until the boat was gone. About the same time, another bold robbery occurred near Bellevue, the incidents of which so well illustrate the character of these ruffians, that we cannot forbear recounting them.

One Collins, a farmer, living about 8 miles from town, came in one day and sold Brown a yoke of cattle for \$80. Being a poor judge of money, and knowing Brown's character well, he refused to take anything in payment but specie. On his return home that evening, he placed his money in his chest. About midnight, his house was broken open by two men, upon which he sprang from his bed, but was immediately knocked down. His wife, coming to his rescue, was also knocked down, and both were threatened with instant death if any more disturbance was made. The robbers then possessed themselves of Collins' money and watch, and departed. In the morning, he made complaint before a justice of the peace, accusing two men in the employment of Brown with the crime. They were arrested and examined. On the trial, Collins and his wife swore positively to the men, and also identified a watch found with them as the one taken. In their possession was found \$80 in gold, the exact amount stolen. A farmer living near Collins, testified that about 11 o'clock, on the night of the robbery, the accused stopped at his house and inquired the way to Collins'. Here the prosecution closed their evidence, and the defence called three witnesses to the stand, among whom was Fox, afterward noted as the murderer of Colonel Davenport, all of whom swore positively that, on the night of the robbery, they and the accused played cards from dark till daylight, in Brown's house, 8 miles from the scene of the robbery. In the face of the overwhelming testimony adduced by the State, the defendants were discharged.

Another laughable instance, displaying the shrewdness and villainy of these fellows, occurred early in the spring of 1838. Godfrey (one of the robbers of Collins) came into town with a fine span of matched horses, with halter ropes around their necks. From the known character of their possessor, the sheriff thought best to take the horses into his custody. Brown's gang remonstrated against the proceedings, but to no effect. Subsequently a writ of replevin was procured, and the horses demanded—the sheriff refused to give them up. A general row ensued. The citizens, being the stronger party at that time, sustained the sheriff, and he maintained the dignity of his office. Handbills, describing the horses accurately, were then sent around the county. A few days afterward, a stranger appeared in town, anxiously inquiring for the sheriff, and, upon meeting him, he announced his business to be the recovery of a fine span of horses, which had been stolen from him a short time before, and then so accurately described those detained by the sheriff, that the latter informed him that he then had them in his stable. Upon examining them, the man was gratified to find that they were his; turning to the crowd, he offered \$25 to any one who would produce Godfrey, remarking, that if he met him, he would wreak his vengeance upon him in a summary manner, without the intervention of a jury. Godfrey was not, however, to be found, and the horses were delivered to the stranger.

Imagine the consternation of the sheriff, when, two days later, the true owner of the horses appeared in search of them. The other was an accomplice of Godfrey, and they had taken that method of securing their booty. Similar incidents could be detailed to fill pages, for they were of continual occurrence.

On the 20th of March, 1840, the citizens of Bellevue, not implicated in the plans of the horse-thieves and counterfeiters, held a meeting to consider the wrongs of the community. But one opinion was advanced, that the depredators must leave the place, or summary vengeance would be inflicted upon them all. It was resolved that a warrant should be procured for the arrest of the whole

gang, from Justice Watkins—father of our present sheriff—and, upon a certain day, the sheriff, accompanied by all the honest citizens as a posse, should proceed to serve the same. The warrant was issued upon the affidavit of Anson Harrington, Esq., one of our most respectable citizens, charging about half the inhabitants of the town—Brown's men—with the commission of crimes.

A posse of 80 men was selected by the sheriff from among the best citizens of the county, who met in Bellevue on the 1st day of April, 1840, at 10 o'clock, A. M. Brown, in the meantime, had got wind of the proceedings, and had rallied a party of 23 men, whose names were on the warrant, and proceeded to fortify the Bellevue Hotel, and prepare for a vigorous defence. On the sheriff's arriving in Bellevue with his party, he found a red flag streaming from the hotel, and a portion of Brown's men marching to and fro in front of their fort, armed with rifles, presenting a formidable appearance.

A meeting of the citizens was then convened to consult upon the best method of securing the ends of justice, of which Major Thomas S. Sparks was Chairman. It was resolved that the sheriff should go to Brown's fort, with two men, and demand their surrender, reading his warrant, and assuring them that they should be protected in their persons and property. It was also resolved, if they did not surrender, to storm the house, and that Colonel Thomas Cox, then a representative in the Iowa Legislature, should assist the sheriff in the command of the party selected for this purpose.

The sheriff then went to the hotel, accompanied by Messrs. Watkins and Magoon. When near the house, they were suddenly surrounded by Brown and a party of his men, all fully armed. They captured the sheriff, and ordered Watkins and Magoon to return and inform the citizens, that at the first attempt to storm the house, they would shoot the sheriff. Being conducted into the house, the sheriff read his warrant, and informed them of the proceedings of the meeting. Just then it was discovered that Colonel Cox, with a party of citizens, was rapidly advancing on the hotel. Upon the sheriff's promise to stop them and then return, he was released by Brown. He met the party, and, accosting Cox, requested him to delay the attack one hour, and if he (the sheriff) did not return by that time, for them to come on and take the house.

Cox was determined the sheriff should not return, saying that he should not keep his word with such a band of ruffians. Better counsels, however, prevailed, and the sheriff went back. On his return, he found that Brown's men had been drinking freely to keep up their courage. After some parleying, Brown determined not to surrender, commanding the sheriff to return to his men and tell them to come on, and if they succeeded in carrying the hotel, it should only be over their dead bodies.

The sheriff returned and disclosed the result of his interview. Mrs. Brown, in the meantime, and a fellow called Buckskin, paraded the streets with a red flag. The citizens were then addressed by Cox and Watkins, and it was finally determined that a body of 40 men should be selected to make the attack, upon which the posse started and charged upon the house at a full run. As our men entered the porch, the garrison commenced firing, but we being so near, they generally overshot their mark. At the first fire, one of our best men, Mr. Palmer, was killed, and another, Mr. Vaughn, badly wounded. Brown opened the door and put his gun to shoot, when he was immediately shot down by one of our men. The battle then became desperate and hand to hand. After considerable hard fighting, the "balance" of the gang commenced their retreat through the back

door of the house. They were surrounded and all captured but 3. The result of the fight was, on the part of the counterfeiters, the loss of 5 killed and 2 badly wounded; on the part of the citizens, 4 killed and 11 wounded.

The excitement after the fight was intense. Many of the citizens were in favor of putting all the prisoners to death. Other counsels, however, prevailed, and a citizens' court was organized to try them.

During the fight, Captain Harris anchored his boat in the middle of the river, and remained there until the result was known, when the passengers ascended to the upper deck and gave three hearty cheers. Doctors Finley, of Dubuque, and Crossman, of Galena, were sent for, and were soon in attendance on the wounded of both parties.

Much joy was manifested by the citizens at the breaking up of one of the most desperate gangs of housebreakers, murderers, and counterfeiters that ever infested the western country. The next morning a vote of the citizens was taken as to the disposal of the prisoners.

As the District Court was not to meet for three months, and there being no jail in the county, and in fact none in the Territory that was safe, and surrounded as we were on all sides by offshoots of the same band, who could muster 200 men in a day's time to rescue them, it was deemed the merest folly to attempt to detain them as prisoners, and it was resolved to execute summary justice upon them. The question was then put, whether to hang or whip them. A cup of red and white beans was first passed around, to be used as ballots, the *red* for hanging, and the *white* for whipping.

A breathless silence was maintained during the vote. In a few moments the result was announced. It stood *forty-two* white and *thirty-eight* red beans. The resolution to whip them was then unanimously adopted. Fox, afterward the murderer of Davenport, and several others made full confessions of many crimes, in which they had been engaged. The whole crowd of prisoners was then taken out, and received from 25 to 75 lashes apiece, upon their bare backs, according to their deserts. They were then put into boats and set adrift on the river, without oars, and under the assurance that a return would insure a speedy death.

Animated by the example of Bellevue, the citizens of Rock River, Illinois, Linn, Johnson, and other counties in Iowa, rose *en masse*, and expelled the gangs of robbers from their midst, with much bloodshed.

Thus ended the struggle for supremacy between vice and virtue in Bellevue, which, from this day forth, has been as noted, in the Mississippi Valley, for the morality of its citizens, as it was once rendered infamous by their crimes.

MISSOURI.

Area,	65,350 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	1,182,012
Population in 1870,	1,721,295

THE State of Missouri is situated between $36^{\circ} 30'$ and $40^{\circ} 36' N.$ latitude, and between $89^{\circ} 10'$ and $96^{\circ} W.$ longitude. It is bounded on the north by Iowa; on the east by Illinois, Kentucky, and Tennessee; on the south by Arkansas; and on the West by the Indian Territory and Kansas. Its extreme length, from east to west, is 285 miles, and its extreme breadth, from north to south, is 280 miles.

TOPOGRAPHY.

North of the Missouri River, the surface of the State is principally level. South of that stream it is rolling, and gradually rises into a range of bold highlands known as the Ozark Mountains, which extend through the centre of the State, from northeast to southwest; south of the Osage River, and pass into northwestern Arkansas. Beyond the Osage River, immense prairies stretch away to the setting sun. The extreme southeastern part of the State is occupied by a large swamp, which extends into Arkansas. *The Mississippi River* forms the eastern boundary of the State, and receives the waters of the Salt, Missouri, and Maramec rivers. The principal places on the Mississippi are Hannibal, St. Louis, Carondelet, Cape Girardeau, and New Madrid. *The Missouri River* forms the western boundary of the State to Kansas City. At this point it bends to the east, and flows east-southeast across the State into the Mississippi, above St. Louis. It receives the waters of the Chariton and Grand rivers, on the north, and those of the Osage and Gasconade on the south. The principal



FLOATING ISLAND ON THE MISSOURI RIVER.

places on the Missouri are El Paso, St. Joseph's, Kansas City, Lexington, Booneville, Jefferson City, and St. Charles. The Missouri in many places is lined with high bluffs, and flows through the State for about 340 miles. *The Osage River* rises in the eastern part of the State of Kansas, and flows east-northeast into the Missouri, about 10 miles below Jefferson City. It is about 500 miles long, and is navigable at high water for 200 miles. *The St. Francis and White rivers* drain the southeastern part of the State, and pass into Arkansas.

MINERALS.

"Missouri is richly endowed with mineral wealth. The iron region around Iron Mountain and Pilot Knob is unsurpassed in the world for the abundance and purity of its deposits. On the Maramec River, and in some other localities, are found small quantities of lead. Copper is found extensively deposited, being most abundant near the La Motte mines. It is also found with nickel, manganese, iron, cobalt, and lead, in combinations, yielding from 30 to 40 per cent. All these metals, except nickel, exist in considerable quantities; also silver, in combination with lead ore and tin. Limestone, marble, and other eligible building material are abundant, especially north of the

Missouri. The geological formations of the State are principally those between the upper coal measures and the lower silurian rocks. The drift is spread over a large surface; in the north, vast beds of bituminous coal, including cannel coal, exist on both sides of the Missouri River. When these mineral resources shall receive their proper development, they will immensely enlarge the scope of industrial enterprise."

CLIMATE.

"The climate is noted for extremes of temperature. In the winter, the rivers are often frozen so as to admit the crossing of heavily-loaded vehicles, while in summer it is extremely warm, its enervating effects being prevented by a very dry, pure atmosphere, generally favorable to health and longevity."

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

"The soil of Missouri is remarkable for its variety and excellence. The most productive portions are the alluvions of the river-courses, which, though often mixed with sand, are rich in the elements of fertilization. Even in the mountain regions, there are rich valleys, and those tracts reported as inarable are covered with valuable growths of white pine. The marshes of the southeast, when properly drained, will constitute the best farming lands of the State. The river bottoms are covered with luxuriant growths of oak, elm, ash, hickory, cottonwood, linden, and white and black walnut. Thinner soils abound in white and pin oak; and, occasionally, are covered with heavy forests of yellow pine, crab-apples, pawpaws, hazel, and wild grapes of a spontaneous luxuriance."*

In 1869, there were about 8,000,000 acres of improved land in the State. The other returns for the same year were:

Bushels of wheat,	7,500,000
" Indian corn,	80,500,000
" oats,	6,500,000
" Irish potatoes,	2,000,000
" rye,	325,000
" barley,	300,000
Tons of hay,	750,000
Pounds of butter,	12,704,837
Number of horses,	520,640
" asses and mules,	81,450

* General Land Office Report.

Number of milch cows,	390,120
“ sheep,	1,001,890
“ swine,	2,790,860
“ young cattle,	790,112
Value of domestic animals,	\$58,693,673
Pounds of tobacco (estimated),	20,000,000
“ wool “	2,000,000

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.

The manufacturing interests of Missouri are growing with remarkable rapidity. In 1870 there were 11,781 manufacturing establishments in the State, employing a capital of \$80,257,244, consuming raw material to the value of \$115,533,269, and turning out an annual product of \$206,213,429.

St. Louis, on the Mississippi, is one of the most important commercial cities in the Union. The State has no foreign commerce, its products being shipped from New Orleans and the Atlantic ports, from which also its imports are drawn.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In 1872, there were 2850 miles of completed railroads in Missouri, constructed at a cost of about \$65,000,000. There is railroad communication between St. Louis and the principal towns, and that city is connected by the roads of Illinois with all parts of the Union. A main line extends from St. Louis, across the State into Kansas.

EDUCATION.

There are 11 colleges in Missouri, the principal of which is the *State University*, at Columbia. It is liberally endowed, and will soon be enlarged by the addition of an Agricultural Department. It has also a Normal Department. There are a separate *State Normal College*, and a private Normal School in successful operation.

The schools of St. Louis are distinct from those of the State, and enjoy a high rank.

The educational system of the State is under the control of a Superintendent of Public Schools, who is elected by the people for two years. The State is divided into as many school districts as it has Congressional Districts, each of which is controlled by a Board of Directors. Each district is divided into as many sub-districts as necessity may require, and each sub-district is in charge of a local director. These local directors constitute the Board of Directors for the entire district. Each county is under the supervision of a County Superin-

tendent, who is elected by the people for two years. The permanent school fund amounted, in 1870, to \$1,674,986. In the year 1870, the State expended \$1,074,141 for the support of the public schools. In the same year, there were 5996 public schools in the State, attended by 320,313 pupils.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The State Penitentiary is located at Jefferson City, and, in 1870, contained 797 convicts. The labor of the prisoners is let out to contractors.

The Missouri Institution for the Education of the Blind, at St. Louis, was established in 1851. It is supported, in part, by the State, private donations doing the rest. In 1868, it contained 70 pupils.

The Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, at Fulton, was closed during the war, but was reopened in 1866.

The Insane Asylum is at Fulton, and is in a flourishing condition. In 1867, it contained about 420 patients.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, there were 2082 churches in Missouri. The value of church property was \$9,709,358.

LIBRARIES AND NEWSPAPERS.

In 1870, the State contained 5645 libraries, with 1,065,638 volumes.

In the same year, there were 279 newspapers and periodicals (21 of which were daily) published in Missouri. Their aggregate annual circulation was 47,980,422 copies.

FINANCES.

In 1870, the total bonded debt of the State was \$17,886,000. The receipts of the Treasury for 15 months ending December 31st, 1870, were \$2,847,035, and the expenditures for the same period \$10,-037,137.

In 1868, there were 8 State banks, with a capital of \$1,960,300, and 18 National banks, with a capital of \$7,810,300, doing business in the State.

GOVERNMENT.

Male citizens of the United States, and male foreigners who have lawfully declared their intention to become citizens, not less than

one year, nor more than five years, before they offer to vote, who have resided in the State one year, and in the county 60 days, are entitled to vote at the elections.

The Government is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Auditor, and Attorney-General, and a Legislature, consisting of a Senate (of 34 members) and a House of Representatives (of 137 members), all elected by the people. The State officers and Representatives are chosen for two years. Senators are elected for four years, one-half retiring biennially. The general election is held in November, and the Legislature meets biennially, in December.

The Courts of the State are the Supreme Court (consisting of three judges), Circuit Courts, District Courts, and County Courts. All judges are elected by the people.

The seat of Government is located at Jefferson City.

The State is divided into 113 counties.

HISTORY.

Missouri was originally a French province, and was included in the Louisiana purchase of 1803. It was first visited by Marquette and Joliet in 1673, during their memorable voyage down the Mississippi. In 1719, Fort Orleans was built at the mouth of the Osage River, not far from the present capital of the State. In 1720, the lead mines were first worked by the French. The town of St. Genevieve was founded in 1755, and St. Louis in 1764. These were speedily followed by other settlements, the whole region forming a part of the Province of Louisiana, which, in 1763, was ceded by France to Spain. The Spaniards were very liberal and politic in their treatment of this part of their new province, and the settlers had no reason to complain of the change.

At the time of the Revolution, the population of St. Louis was about 800 souls. In 1780, a force of 1500 British and Indians from the Lakes laid siege to it, and invested it for a week, reducing it to great straits, and killing 60 or 70 of the inhabitants. Fortunately, a force of Kentuckians, under General Rogers Clarke, came to its relief, and drove the enemy away.

After the peace of 1783, Spain retained possession of Louisiana, and the east bank of the Mississippi became the property of the United States. Settlers from the United States crossed over repeatedly to the Spanish shore, and built their cabins. They were not suffered to re-

main in peace by the authorities, and this led to a diplomatic correspondence between Spain and the United States, by which the former granted the free navigation of the Mississippi to the Americans. The Spanish officials on the river, however, paid no attention to the treaty, and there was every prospect of a serious difficulty between the two countries when the cession of Louisiana to France by Spain, and its purchase by the United States, removed all danger of hostilities.

The new territory was at once divided into two Governments, the Territory of Orleans, and the District of Louisiana. Soon after this, the Territory of Orleans was admitted into the Union as the State of Louisiana. The name of the District was at once changed to Missouri Territory. Emigrants came in rapidly, and, in 1810, the population was 20,845. In 1817, it was 60,000.

The people of Missouri now applied for admission into the Union as a State. Slavery existed in the Territory, and they were anxious to retain it in the new State. The Free Soil party of the country opposed its admission as a slave-holding State, and the South and the Democratic party sustained the demand of the Missourians. A severe political struggle, which has already been described, at once began, and continued for two years with such violence that it threatened to destroy the Union. It was allayed by a compromise offered by Henry Clay, that Missouri should be admitted as a slaveholding State; but that slavery should never exist in the territory north of $36^{\circ} 30'$ N. latitude. A settlement being effected upon this condition, Missouri was admitted as a State on the 14th of December, 1821.

During the excitement in Kansas and Nebraska, the western border of Missouri became the scene of almost constant hostilities between the Pro-slavery men and Free Settlers of Kansas.

At the outbreak of the Rebellion, an unsuccessful effort was made to force the State into the Southern Confederacy. It failed through the superior vigilance and promptness of the Union men of the State. The population was divided between the Union and the Confederacy, and thousands of troops entered both armies. The American population was almost a unit in favor of the South, while the foreigners were Union men. Several severe battles were fought in the State, and many minor encounters occurred within its limits. The State was held by the United States army during the war, and its civil government was almost suspended until after the return of peace. A new Constitution was adopted in 1865, and amended by the popular vote in 1870.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the principal cities and towns of the State are St. Louis, St. Joseph's, Hannibal, Lexington, Carondelet, St. Charles, Weston, Booneville, Washington, Brunswick, Columbia, Independence, Liberty, Palmyra, and Springfield.

JEFFERSON CITY,

In Cole county, is the capital of the State. It is situated on the right bank of the Missouri River, 155 miles by water above St. Louis, and 980 miles from Washington City. Latitude $38^{\circ} 36' N.$; longitude $92^{\circ} 8' W.$ The situation is picturesque, the city being located on a commanding bluff, from which an extensive view is obtained. The city is tolerably well built, but, apart from being the capital of the State, has few attractions. *The State House* is the principal building. It is constructed of stone, and presents a magnificent appearance from the river below the town. The city contains the Governor's Mansion, the State Penitentiary, several schools, public and private, about 5 churches, and 2 newspaper offices. In 1870 the population was 4420.

In 1821, Jefferson City was chosen as the capital of the State, and in 1822 the town was laid out.

ST. LOUIS,

In the county of the same name, is the metropolis of the State, the largest city of the Western States, and the fourth city with regard to population in the United States. It is situated on the west bank of the Mississippi, 20 miles below the mouth of the Missouri River, 174 miles above the mouth of the Ohio, 774 miles below the Falls of St. Anthony, 1194 miles above New Orleans, 856 miles west-by-south of Washington, and 128 miles east of Jefferson City.

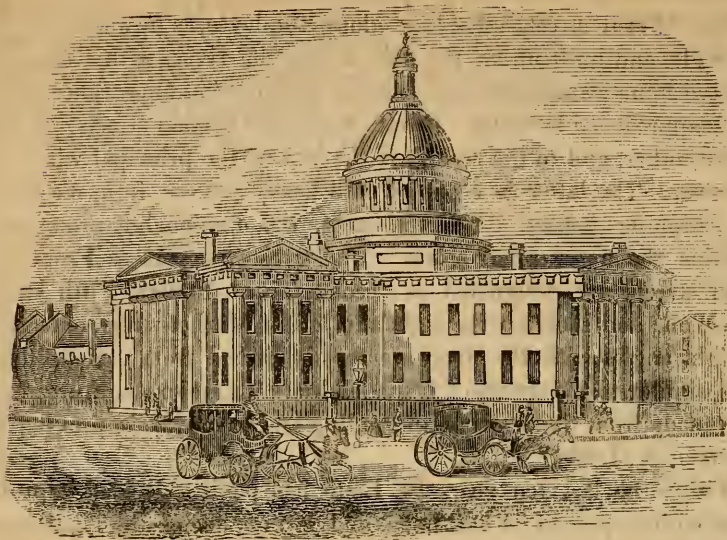
"The site rises from the river by two plateaus of limestone formation; the first 20 and the other 60 feet above the floods of the Mississippi. The ascent to the first plateau, or bottom as it may be termed, is somewhat abrupt; the second rises more gradually, and spreads out into an extensive plain, affording fine views of the city and river. St. Louis extends in all nearly 7 miles by the curve of the Mississippi, and about 3 miles back; the thickly settled portion, however, is only 2 or $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length, following the river, and about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles in breadth. The city is well laid out, the streets being for the most part

60 feet wide, and, with few exceptions, intersecting each other at right angles. Front street, extending along the levee, is upwards of 100 feet wide, and built up on the side facing the river, with a range of massive stone warehouses, which make an imposing appearance as the city is approached by water. Front, Main, and Second streets, parallel to each other, and to the river, are the seat of the principal wholesale business. The latter is occupied with heavy grocery, iron, receiving, and shipping houses. Fourth street, the fashionable promenade, contains the finest retail stores. The streets parallel to Front and Main streets are designated as Second, Third, Fourth, Fifth street, and so on; and those on the right and left of Market street, extending at right angles with the river, are mostly named from various forest trees, similar to the streets of Philadelphia. Large expenditures have been made from time to time in grading and otherwise improving the streets of St. Louis."

Within the last ten years St. Louis has made a decided improvement with respect to its buildings, and is now one of the handsomest and most substantially constructed cities in the country. The buildings are principally of brick, though marble, iron, and stone structures are numerous. Many of the private residences will compare favorably with anything in the land. As the wealth of the city has increased, the citizens, with a large public spirit, have spared no expense in their efforts to adorn and beautify their noble city.

The public buildings are among the finest in the Union. *The City Hall and Court House* is a new and splendid structure. It was completed in 1860, and cost over \$1,000,000. It is a magnificent edifice, constructed of limestone, and occupies the square bounded by Fourth, Fifth, Chestnut, and Market streets. The front is ornamented with porticoes, and from the centre of the building rises a fine dome, which, though of smaller proportions, greatly resembles that of the capitol at Washington. *The Custom House* is a beautiful edifice, built of Missouri marble. It is also used by the United States Courts, and by the City Post Office. It occupies the site of one of the first theatres erected in St. Louis, and is built upon piles driven more than 20 feet into the ground. *The United States Arsenal*, in the southeastern part of the city, is a massive structure. *The Merchants' Exchange* is one of the finest buildings in St. Louis.

Some of the churches are conspicuous among the ornaments of the city. There are over 80 church edifices in St. Louis; the most imposing of which are the Roman Catholic *Cathedral of St. Louis*; *St.*



COURT HOUSE, ST. LOUIS.

George's, Episcopal, and the *Church of the Messiah*, Unitarian. The Cathedral tower contains a fine chime of bells.

The benevolent and charitable institutions are numerous, and of a high character. The most prominent are the *City Hospital*, *Marine Hospital* (3 miles below the city), the *Sisters' Hospital*, the *Home for the Friendless*, the *House of Refuge*, the *Reform School*, and 10 *Orphan Asylums*. The institutions controlled by the city are among the best in the country, and those dependent on private contributions are in a flourishing condition.

The city of St. Louis has an excellent system of Public Schools, including a Normal School, a High School, 31 District Schools, and 3 colored schools. The annual expenditure for school purposes is about \$200,000. The schools are all provided with handsome and comfortable buildings. Besides these, the city contains a large number of private schools of every grade. The institutions of the higher class are the *St. Louis University*, conducted by the Roman Catholics; the *Washington University*; *St. Louis Medical College*; *Concordia College*, a German institution; *Missouri Medical College*; and the *Polytechnic Institute*; the latter of which possesses a library of 27,000 volumes. There are 5 other public libraries in the city; the best of which is said to be the Mercantile Library, which contains 37,000 volumes.

The newspaper press of St. Louis ranks very high. Some of the ablest and most influential journals in the country are published here. Being the largest city in the West, the influence of the St. Louis press in this section is naturally very great. There are 44 newspapers and periodicals published here. Nine of these are daily, 17 weekly, 3 semi-monthly, 12 monthly, 1 bi-monthly, and 2 quarterly. Each of the dailies issues a weekly edition.

Until within the last few years, St. Louis paid but little attention to public parks or squares. Now, however, it is very well provided in this respect. Besides 14 small squares scattered throughout the city, and containing an aggregate of 119 acres, it possesses the new *Tower Grove Park*, 276½ acres in extent, and *Shaw's Garden*, 276 acres, said to be "the Wonder of the West." The principal burying-ground is *Bellefontaine Cemetery*, about 5 miles from the Court House. It is a beautiful enclosure of about 350 acres, and contains the graves of many of the old settlers of St. Louis.

The hotels of St. Louis are noted for their excellence. The principal are the *Lindell*, *Southern*, *Barnum's*, *Everett*, and the *Planter's*. The *Lindell* and *Southern* rank among the finest hotels in the United States. They are inferior to none in the country in size, magnificence, or the accommodations offered to guests. They are among the principal ornaments of St. Louis.

The city is supplied with an excellent system of street railways, connecting its distant points. It is lighted with gas, and is supplied with water from the Mississippi. The water is pumped by steam from the river, and forced through a twenty-inch pipe into a large reservoir, located about one mile west of the city. The city is also provided with an efficient police force, a steam fire department, and a police and fire-alarm telegraph. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 310,864. A very large number of the inhabitants are Germans, or of German origin, and German customs prevail here to a great degree.

Eight lines of railway connect St. Louis with all parts of the Union. A bridge, recently constructed from the city to the Illinois shore, gives unbroken communication with the eastern side of the Mississippi. The city is the principal shipping point for almost the entire State of Missouri, and conducts an active trade along the Mississippi, the Missouri, the Ohio, and their tributaries. In 1860, the year before the civil war, the arrivals of steamboats at this port were 4371, with an aggregate tonnage of 1,120,039. The

civil war almost destroyed the river trade, but since the return of peace it has rapidly recovered, and has regained a very large share of its former prosperity. In 1870, the arrivals of boats, excluding all of less than 500 tons, was 2725. The receipts of lumber for the year were 240,-760,000 feet; the receipts of cattle were 201,248 head; the receipts of grain were 23,908,910 bushels; the receipts of flour were 2,922,630 barrels; the receipts of lead were 234,903 pigs; the receipts of iron ore were 316,000 tons; and the receipts of coal were 23,931,475 tons.

The city is largely engaged in manufactures, and contains many of the largest and best establishments in the West. Among these are extensive iron works, flouring mills (which in 1870 produced 1,351,733 barrels of flour), sugar refineries, manufactories of hemp, rope and bagging, and tobacco, and oil mills. In 1870 the capital invested in manufactures in the city amounted to \$41,761,688, the number of hands employed was 33,551; the amount paid as wages was \$15,906,131; raw material was used to the value of \$60,541,012; and the total value of articles produced in these establishments was \$131,192,670. The taxable property of the city of St. Louis in 1870, amounted to \$275,133,331; real estate \$217,355,611, personal property \$57,777,720.

The position of St. Louis of necessity makes her a great city. Situated about half way between the Atlantic and the Pacific, and in the geographical centre of one of the most fertile and best cultivated agricultural regions in the world, "almost at the very focus towards which converge the Mississippi, the Missouri, the Ohio, and the Illinois rivers," there seems no limit to the wealth and importance, which the future holds in store for the great metropolis of the southwest. Within a circuit of 90 miles of the city, lie immense deposits of iron, lead, and copper ores, and coal equal to the wants of the entire Mississippi valley for centuries to come.

"Among the many sites which the vast domain of uninhabited territory in the Mississippi valley presented for founding a city, that on which St. Louis now stands was selected by Laclède, February 15th, 1764, as one possessing peculiar advantages for the fur trade, and for defence against the Indians. The confluence of the different rivers in the immediate neighborhood was a desideratum in the estimation of the trapper; it has become of vast importance to the place in establishing it as a centre for agricultural and manufacturing enterprises. The statistics of these early times show that for 15 successive years, ending in 1804, the average annual value of the furs collected at this port amounted to \$203,750. The number of deer

skins was 158,000 ; of beaver, 36,900 ; of otter, 8000 ; of bear, 5100 ; and of buffalo, 850. The population at this period was between 1500 and 2000, one-half of whom were absent a great part of each year as trappers and voyageurs. It will readily be perceived that the elements which gave the settlement existence were not of a character adequate to foster it beyond the limits of a frontier village ; and accordingly, as late as 1820, we find the accession of population had not swelled the original very materially. Up to this date the census only shows an advance to 4598. Military expeditions and establishments, together with a sparse immigration, confined to those peculiar temperaments which delight in the wild and adventurous, still kept up a progressive improvement, which centering here for personal security as well as for trade, still fixed it as the seat of a commercial and manufacturing metropolis, destined in a few years to become an object of interest throughout the world. On the 11th of August, 1768, a Spanish officer by the name of Rioux, with a company of Spanish troops, took possession of St. Louis and Upper Louisiana, as it was termed, in the name of his Catholic majesty, under whose government it remained until its final transfer to the United States, March 26, 1804. In 1813, the first brick house was erected ; in 1817, the first steamboat arrived—both important events, but neither of which became frequent until several years after. In 1822, St. Louis was chartered as a city, under the title given by Laclède, in honor of Louis XV. of France. From 1825 to 1830, the influx of population from Illinois began to be of importance. From this State the commerce of St. Louis received its first great impulse, and from this State it still derives a large portion of its support. With 1829 the keel-boat entirely disappeared. The steamer *Yellowstone* about this time ascended to the Great Falls, and was succeeded by the *Assinaboine* and others. Dry-goods houses were already established, and these sent out retail branches to Springfield, and other places in Illinois. Extensive warehouses began to be erected, some of which are still standing, having survived the great fire. They rose from their solid limestone foundations, built on a scale which shows that the impressions of the present were vividly portrayed to the minds of the people of that day.”*

Since 1830 the city has grown with marked rapidity. In that year the population was 6694 ; in 1840 it was 16,469 ; in 1850 it was 77,850 ; in 1860 it was 160,773, and in 1870, 310,864.

* Lippincott's Gazetteer.

MISCELLANY.

MISSOURI DURING THE WAR OF 1812-15.

Colonel John Shaw is the author of the following reminiscences :

The Upper Mississippi Indians, of all tribes, commenced depredations on the frontiers of Missouri and Illinois in 1811, and early in 1812. Several persons were killed in different quarters. About 30 miles above the mouth of Salt River, and fully 100 above the mouth of the Missouri, was Gilbert's Lick, on the western bank of the Mississippi, a place of noted resort for animals and cattle to lick the brackish water ; and where a man named Samuel Gilbert, from Virginia, had settled two or three years prior to the spring of 1812. In that region, and particularly below him, were a number of other settlers. About the latter part of May, 1812, a party of from 12 to 18 Upper Mississippi Indians descended the river in canoes, and fell upon the scattered cabins of this upper settlement in the night, and killed a dozen or more people.

This massacre in the Gilbert's Lick settlement caused great consternation along the Missouri frontier, and the people, as a matter of precaution, commenced fortifying. Some seven or eight forts or stockades were erected, to which a portion of the inhabitants resorted, while many others held themselves in readiness to flee there for safety, in case it might be thought necessary. I remember the names of Stout's Fort, Wood's Fort, a small stockade at what is now Clarksville, Fort Howard, and a fort at Howell's settlement—the latter nearest to Colonel Daniel Boone ; but the people bordering immediately on the Missouri River, being less exposed to danger, did not so early resort to the erection of stockades.

About this time, probably a little after, while I was engaged with 18 or 20 men in building a temporary stockade where Clarksville now stands, on the western bank of the Mississippi, a party of Indians came and killed the entire family of one O'Neil, about 3 miles above Clarksville, while O'Neil himself was employed with his neighbors in erecting the stockade. In company with O'Neil and others, I hastened to the scene of murder, and found all killed, scalped, and horribly mangled. One of the children, about a year and a half old, was found literally baked in a large pot-metal bake-kettle, or Dutch oven, with a cover on ; and as there were no marks of the knife or tomahawk on the body, the child must have been put in alive to suffer this horrible death ; the oil or fat in the bottom of the kettle was nearly two inches deep.

I went to St. Louis, in company with Ira Cottle, to see Governor Clark, and ascertain whether war had been actually declared. This must have been sometime in June, but the news of the declaration of war against Great Britain had not yet reached there. On our return, I was strongly urged by the people to act as a spy or scout on the frontier, as I was possessed of great bodily activity, and it was well known that I had seen much woods experience. I consented to act in this capacity on the frontiers of St. Charles county, never thinking or troubling myself about any pecuniary recompense, and was only anxious to render the distressed people a useful service. I immediately entered alone upon this duty, sometimes mounted, and sometimes on foot, and carefully watching the river above the settlements, to discover whether any Indians had landed, and sometimes to follow their trails, learn their destination, and report to the settlements.

Upon my advice, several of the weaker stockades were abandoned, for 20 or 30 miles around, and concentrated at a place near the mouth of Cuivre or Copper River, at or near the present village of Monroe; and there a large number of us, perhaps some 60 or 70 persons, were some two or three weeks employed in the erection of a fort. We named it in honor of the patriotic Governor, Benjamin Howard, and between 20 and 30 families were soon safely lodged in Fort Howard. The fort was an oblong square, north and south, and embraced about half an acre, with block houses at all the corners except the southeast one.

As the war had now fairly commenced, an Act of Congress authorized the raising of six companies of Rangers; three to be raised on the Missouri side of the Mississippi, and the other three on the Illinois side. The Missouri companies were commanded by Daniel M. Boone, Nathan Boone, and David Musick. The commission of Nathan Boone was dated in June, 1812, to serve a year, as were doubtless the others.

The Indians, supplied by their British employers with new rifles, seemed bent on exterminating the Americans—always, however, excepting the French and Spaniards, who, from their Indian intermarriages, were regarded as friends and connections. Their constant attacks and murders led to offensive measures.

Of the famous Sink Hole battle, fought on the 24th of May, 1814, near Fort Howard, I shall be able to give a full account, as I was present and participated in it. Captain Peter Craig commanded at Fort Howard; he resided with his father-in-law, Andrew Ramsey, at Cape Girardeau, and did not exceed 30 years of age. Drakeford Gray was 1st Lieutenant. Wilson Able, the 2d, and Edward Spears, 3d Lieutenant.

About noon, 5 of the men went out of the fort to Byrne's deserted house, on the bluff, about a quarter of a mile below the fort, to bring in a grindstone. In consequence of back water from the Mississippi, they went in a canoe; and on their return were fired on by a party supposed to be 50 Indians, who were under shelter of some brush that grew along at the foot of the bluff, near Byrne's house, and about 15 rods distant from the canoe at the time. Three of the whites were killed, and one mortally wounded; and as the back water, where the canoe was, was only about knee deep, the Indians ran out and tomahawked their victims.

The people in the fort ran out as quick as possible, and fired across the back water at the Indians, but as they were nearly a quarter of a mile off, it was of course without effect. Captain Craig, with a party of some 25 men, hastened in pursuit of the Indians, and ran across a point of the back water, a few inches deep; while another party, of whom I was one, of about 25, ran to the right of the water, with a view of intercepting the Indians, who seemed to be making toward the bluff, or high plain, west and northwest of the fort. The party with which I had started and Captain Craig's soon united.

Immediately on the bluff was the cultivated field and deserted residence of Benjamin Allen, the field about 40 rods across, beyond which was pretty thick timber. Here the Indians made a stand, and here the fight commenced. Both parties treed, and as the firing waxed warm, the Indians slowly retired as the whites advanced. After this fighting had been going on perhaps some 10 minutes, the whites were reinforced by Captain David Musick, of Cape au Gris, with about 20 men. Captain Musick had been on a scout toward the head of Cuivre River, and had returned, though unknown at Fort Howard, to the crossing of Cuivre River, about a mile from the fort, and about a mile and a half from

the scene of conflict; and had stopped with his men to graze their horses, when, hearing the firing, they instantly remounted and dashed toward the place of battle, and dismounting in the edge of the timber on the bluff, and hitching their horses, they rushed through a part of the Indian line, and shortly after the enemy fled, a part bearing to the right of the Sink Hole toward Bob's Creek, but the most of them taking refuge in the Sink Hole, which was close by where the main fighting had taken place. About the time the Indians were retreating, Captain Craig exposed himself about 4 feet beyond his tree, and was shot through the body, and fell dead; James Putney was killed before Captain Craig, and perhaps one or two others. Before the Indians retired to the Sink Hole, the fighting had become animated; the loading was done quick, and shots rapidly exchanged, and when one of our party was killed or wounded, it was announced aloud.

This Sink Hole was about 60 feet in length, and about 12 to 15 feet wide, and 10 or 12 feet deep. Near the bottom, on the southeast side, was a shelving rock, under which perhaps some 50 or 60 persons might have sheltered themselves. At the northeast end of the Sink Hole, the descent was quite gradual, the other end much more abrupt, and the southeast side was nearly perpendicular, and the other side about like the steep roof of a house. On the southeast side, the Indians, as a further protection in case the whites should rush up, dug under the shelving rock with their knives. On the sides and in the bottom of the Sink Hole were some bushes, which also served as something of a screen for the Indians.

Captain Musick and his men took post on the northeast side of the Sink Hole, and the others occupied other positions surrounding the enemy. As the trees approached close to the Sink Hole, these served in part to protect our party. Finding we could not get a good opportunity to dislodge the enemy, as they were best protected, those of our men who had families at the fort gradually went there, not knowing but a large body of Indians might seize the favorable occasion to attack the fort while the men were mostly away, engaged in the exciting contest.

The Indians in the Sink Hole had a drum, made of a skin stretched over a section of hollow tree, on which they beat quite constantly; and some Indian would shake a rattle, called *she-shu-gui*, probably a dried bladder with pebbles within; and even, for a moment, would venture to thrust his head in view, with his hand elevated, shaking his rattle, and calling out *peash! peash!* which was understood to be a sort of defiance, or, as Black Hawk, who was one of the party, says, in his account of that affair, a kind of bravado to come and fight them in the Sink Hole. When the Indians would creep up and shoot over the rim of the Sink Hole, they would instantly disappear, and while they sometimes fired effectual shots, they in turn became occasionally the victims of our rifles. From about 1 to 4 o'clock in the afternoon, the firing was inconstant, our men generally reserving their fire till an Indian would show his head, and all of us were studying how he could more effectually attack and dislodge the enemy.

At length Lieutenant Spears suggested that a pair of cart wheels, axle and tongue, which were seen at Allen's place, near at hand, be obtained, and a moving battery constructed. This idea was entertained favorably, and an hour or more consumed in its construction. Some oak floor puncheons, from 7 to 8 feet in length, were made fast to the axle in an upright position, and port-holes made through them. Finally, the battery was ready for trial, and was sufficiently

large to protect some half a dozen or more men. It was moved forward slowly and seemed to attract the particular attention of the Indians, who had evidently heard the knocking and pounding connected with its manufacture, and who now frequently popped up their heads to make momentary discoveries; and it was at length moved up to within less than 10 paces of the brink of the Sink Hole, on the southeast side. The upright plank did not reach the ground within some 18 inches, our men calculating to shoot beneath the lower end of the plank at the Indians; but the latter, from their position, had the decided advantage of this neglected aperture; for the Indians, shooting beneath the battery at an upward angle, would get shots at the whites before the latter could see them. The Indians also watched the port-holes, and directed some of their shots to them. Lieutenant Spears was shot dead, through the forehead, and his death was much lamented, as he had proved himself the most active and intrepid officer engaged. John Patterson was wounded in the thigh, and some others wounded behind the battery. Having failed in the object for which it was designed, the battery was abandoned after sundown.

Our hope all along had been, that the Indians would emerge from their covert, and attempt to retreat to where we supposed their canoes were left, some 3 or 4 miles distant, in which case we were firmly determined to rush upon them, and endeavor to cut them totally off. The men generally evinced the greatest bravery during the whole engagement. Night now coming on, we heard the reports of half a dozen or so of guns in the direction of the fort, by a few Indians who rushed out from the woods skirting Bob's Creek, not more than 40 rods from the north end of the fort. This movement on the part of the few Indians who had escaped when the others took refuge in the Sink Hole, was evidently designed to divert the attention of the whites, and alarm them for the safety of the fort, and thus effectually relieve the Indians in the Sink Hole. This was the result, for Captain Musick and men retired to the fort, carrying the dead and wounded, and made every preparation to repel a night attack. As the Mississippi was quite high, with much back water over the low grounds, the approach of the enemy was thus facilitated, and it was feared a large Indian force was at hand. The people were always more apprehensive of danger at a time when the river was swollen, than when at its ordinary stage.

The men in the fort were mostly up all night, ready for resistance, if necessary. There was no physician at the fort, and much effort was made to set some broken bones. There was a well in the fort, and provisions and ammunition sufficient to sustain a pretty formidable attack. The women were greatly alarmed, pressing their infants to their bosoms, fearing they might not be permitted to behold another morning's light; but the night passed away without seeing or hearing an Indian. The next morning a party went to the Sink Hole, and found the Indians gone, who had carried off all their dead and wounded, except 5 dead bodies left on the northwest bank of the Sink Hole; and by the signs of blood within the Sink Hole, it was judged that well nigh 30 of the enemy must have been killed and wounded. Lieutenant Drakeford Gray's report of the affair, made 8 of our party killed, one missing, and 5 wounded—making a total of 14; I had thought the number was nearer 20. Our dead were buried near the fort, when Captain Musick and his men went over to Cape au Gris, where they belonged, and of which garrison Captain Musick had the command. We that day sent out scouts, while I proceeded to St. Charles to procure medical and surgical assistance, and sent forward Drs. Hubbard and Wilson.

A R K A N S A S.

Area,	52,198 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	435,450
(Whites, 324,191 ; Negroes, 111,259)	
Population in 1870,	484,471

THE State of Arkansas is situated between 33° and $36^{\circ} 30' N.$ latitude; and between $89^{\circ} 45'$ and $94^{\circ} 40' W.$ longitude. It is bounded on the north by Missouri, on the east by Mississippi and Tennessee, on the south by Louisiana and Texas, and on the west by Texas and the Indian Territory. Its extreme length, from north to south, is 240 miles, and its greatest width, from east to west, about 225 miles.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The eastern part of the State, for 100 miles back from the Mississippi, is flat and swampy. The north-western part is occupied by the *Ozark Mountains*, a low range extending into the State from Missouri, and never rising above a height of 2000 feet. The *Black Hills* lie in the north, and the *Washita Hills* in the west are the remaining elevations. The greater part of the State is rolling.

The *Mississippi River* forms the eastern boundary, and receives the waters of the Arkansas and St. Francis rivers. The principal towns on its banks are Oceola, Mound City, Helena, and Napoleon. The *Arkansas River* enters the State at Fort Smith on the western boundary, and flows southwest across it into the Mississippi at Napoleon. It divides the State into two unequal parts, and receives the waters of the White River on the north, and some small streams from both sides. The principal towns on its banks are Van Buren, Little Rock, and Napoleon.

The Red River flows through the southwest part of the State, and the Washita (already described), with its branches, the Saline and Bœuf, drain the south central counties. *The White River* is the principal branch of the Arkansas, and empties into it a few miles above the junction of the latter stream with the Mississippi. It rises in a number of branches in Southern Missouri, and flows south through the eastern part of Arkansas. It now flows into the Mississippi by a new channel near the mouth of the Arkansas, being in reality a tributary of both streams. Its entire length is about 800 miles, for 500 of which it is navigable for steamers. *The St. Francis River* rises in Southeast Missouri, and flows into the Mississippi just above Helena. It is 400 miles long, and is navigable for 200 miles, beyond the limits of Arkansas. *The Red River* is navigable throughout its course in this State. The Washita is navigable to Camden, and its tributaries, the Saline and Bœuf, are each navigable for a considerable distance.

MINERALS.

The principal minerals of Arkansas are coal, iron, lead, zinc, manganese, gypsum, marble, and salt. The coal fields are very extensive, and extend along both sides of the Arkansas, from about 40 miles above Little Rock to beyond Fort Smith. The deposits of manganese are enormous, and it contains, according to Professor De Bow, more zinc than any other State except New Jersey. The lead ore is very rich in silver, and gold has been discovered in White county. There is a large quarry of oil stone near the Hot Springs, which surpasses any similar formation in the world, and is inexhaustible. In Pike county, on the Little Missouri River, there is a mountain of pure white alabaster. *The Hot Springs*, about 60 miles southwest of Little Rock, are famous for their medicinal qualities. They are especially beneficial in rheumatic and syphilitic cases. They are about 100 in number, and have an average temperature of about 145 degrees.

CLIMATE.

In the northern and western parts of the State the climate is severe, resembling that of Iowa and Wisconsin. The southern and eastern sections have a climate like Louisiana and Mississippi.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

As a general rule the soil is good. The best lands are in the eastern part of the State, and need a better system of drainage.

In 1869, there were over 2,000,000 acres of improved land in the State. In the same year the principal returns were:

Bushels of wheat,	1,170,000
“ Indian corn,	25,750,000
“ potatoes,	346,000
“ oats,	500,000
“ peas and beans,	21,489
Tons of hay,	10,000
Number of horses,	199,600
“ mules and asses,	79,800
“ milch cows,	190,500
“ sheep,	450,030
“ swine,	1,500,630
“ young cattle,	450,005
Value of domestic animals,	\$20,096,977

In 1870, the cotton crop amounted to 375,000 bales.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

Arkansas has no foreign commerce, but possesses a profitable river trade with Memphis and New Orleans.

It has no manufactures of importance, and will, probably, never attain the position of a manufacturing State.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

As late as 1868, the State was very backward in internal improvements. In that year it contained but 191 miles of completed railroads. The cost of construction was \$4,400,000. The great abundance of water transportation in the State enables it to dispense with railroads to a very great degree. In 1872, there were 258 miles of railway in the State.

EDUCATION.

In 1870, there were in Arkansas, 3 colleges, with 335 students; 234 academies and private schools; with about 9000 pupils, and 1744 public schools, with 72,045 pupils. The war completely convulsed the State, and closed all the schools. By the return of peace a large number of the school-houses had been destroyed, or rendered unfit for occupancy, and the educational funds had been scattered. A more melancholy condition of affairs cannot be imagined.

The new Constitution makes provision for a system of Public Edu-

cation, which is placed under the supervision of a Superintendent of Public Schools. Free schools are to be established and maintained by the State, and a permanent school fund set apart. Attendance at school is made compulsory upon all children between the ages of five and eighteen years. Measures are being taken for the establishment of a State University, with a Department of Agriculture.

In 1870, there were 1181 libraries in the State, containing 135,564 volumes. In the same year, 56 weekly newspapers, with an aggregate annual circulation of 1,824,860 copies, were published in the State.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The public institutions of Arkansas were greatly injured by the war.

The Penitentiary, at Little Rock, was used as a military prison until the readmission of the State into the Union, and was very greatly injured. In 1870, 346 prisoners were confined here.

The Institution for the Blind was established in 1859. It maintained a feeble existence, owing to the want of funds, until 1863, when it was closed, and the property sold.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, there were 1141 churches in Arkansas. The value of church property was \$854,975.

FINANCES.

In 1874, the debt of the State amounted to \$9,561,000. We have no accurate returns from the State Treasury.

In 1868, there were 2 National banks, with a capital of \$200,000, doing business in the State.

GOVERNMENT.

The present Constitution of Arkansas was adopted in 1868. By its terms, every male citizen of the United States, and every male foreigner who has lawfully declared his intention to become a citizen, who is 21 years old and has resided in the State one year, and in the county six months, is entitled to vote at the elections. Persons in the military and naval service of the United States, convicts, idiots, lunatics, and persons who participated in the rebellion, are excluded from the ballot.

The Government is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor,

Secretary of State, Auditor, Treasurer, and Attorney-General, and a Legislature, consisting of a Senate (of 24 members), and a House of Representatives (of 82 members), all elected by the people. The State officers and Senators are chosen for four years, and the Representatives for two years. The Legislature meets biennially in January.

The courts of the State are the Supreme Court, Circuit Courts, and County Courts. The judges in this State are appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate. The Supreme Court is composed of a Chief Justice and four Associate Justices, appointed for eight years.

The seat of Government is established at Little Rock.

The State is divided into 55 counties.

HISTORY.

Arkansas was first discovered by De Soto, in 1541. He reached the eastern bank of the Mississippi nearly opposite the present town of Helena, and after halting there 20 days to build boats, crossed the river, and marched 200 miles west of the Mississippi. He sought gold, but failed to find it, and wandering south to the Washita, descended it in 1542 to its mouth, and passed down the Red River to the Mississippi, where he sickened and died, and was buried by his followers in the great river he had discovered.

Arkansas was next visited by Father Marquette, during his voyage down the Mississippi, in 1673. In the next century, trading-posts were erected in the lower part of the present State.

Arkansas was included in the purchase of 1803, and after the admission of Louisiana into the Union formed a part of Missouri Territory. In 1819, it was erected into a separate Territory, with its present name, and in 1820, the first Legislature met at Arkansas Post. In the same year the seat of Government was removed to Little Rock. The population increased rapidly, and in 1830 numbered 30,388 souls. On the 15th of June, 1836, Arkansas was admitted into the Union as a State. In 1840, four years later, the population was 97,574, of which 19,935 were slaves.

At the commencement of the civil war, a State Convention was held at Little Rock. This body, on the 4th of March, 1861, adopted an ordinance of secession, and the State soon after became a member of the Southern Confederacy. It was occupied by both armies during almost the entire period of the war. Several severe battles were fought on its soil, and the State was literally torn to pieces.



LITTLE ROCK.

In 1864, an attempt was made by the Union men of Arkansas to reorganize the State Government, but Congress refused to recognize it as a legitimate government, and organized the State as the Fourth Military District. In 1868, a new Constitution was adopted, and on the 22d of June, of that year, Arkansas was readmitted into the Union.

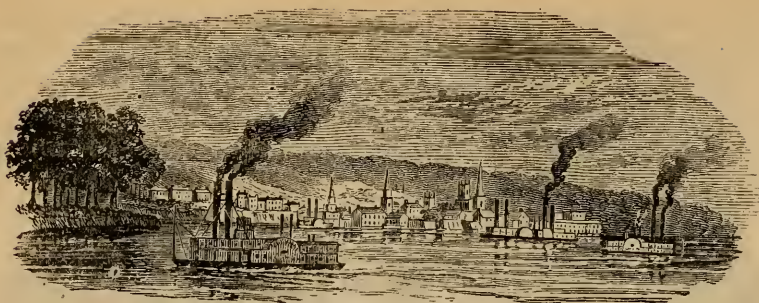
CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the principal places in the State are, Helena, Napoleon, and Camden.

LITTLE ROCK,

In Pulaski county, is the capital of the State. It is situated on the right or southern bank of the Arkansas River, about 300 miles from its mouth, 155 miles west-by-south of Memphis, 905 miles by water from New Orleans, and 1086 miles west of Washington City. Latitude $34^{\circ} 40' N.$; longitude $83^{\circ} 10' W.$

The city is built on a rocky bluff, about 50 feet high. This is the first bluff that occurs in ascending the river, and commands a fine view of the stream and the surrounding country. Little Rock is built principally of wood, and is in some respects a handsome city. The principal buildings are the *State House*, a handsome rough-cast brick edifice; the *State Penitentiary*, which has been several times burned down by the convicts; and the *United States Arsenal*. Some of the



HELENA.

residences are elegant, and have handsome grounds. The city contains 6 churches, several good schools and seminaries, and 2 newspaper offices. It is lighted with gas, and is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 12,380.

Little Rock lies in close proximity to a fertile cotton region. It is connected with Memphis, Tennessee, by railway, and large quantities of cotton are sent overland to that market. Being the principal town on the Arkansas River, it possesses a considerable river trade, and is connected by steamers with Memphis, New Orleans, and the important towns on the Mississippi. Slate of a fine quality, good clay, and granite, which resembles the Quincy granite in appearance, but is not so hard, are found in the vicinity.

The city was founded in 1820, and owes its name to the rock on which it is built. It was seized by the State troops at the outset of the civil war, but was captured by the United States forces in 1862.

HELENA,

The second city of the State, is situated in Phillips county, on the right bank of the Mississippi River, 80 miles below Memphis. It is a well-built town, and contains the county buildings, several churches and schools, and a newspaper office. It is the most important commercial town in the State. It is connected with Memphis and Little Rock by regular lines of steamers, and conducts an important trade along the St. Francis, White, and Arkansas rivers. In the rear of Helena is an extensive and fertile cotton country, and large quantities of this staple are sent here for shipment to Memphis and New Orleans. Helena was almost entirely destroyed by fire in the summer of 1852. In 1862, it was captured by the United States forces, and held by them until the close of the war. In 1870, the population was 2249.

KANSAS.

Area,	81,318 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	107,206
Population in 1870,	364,377

THE State of Kansas is situated between 37° and 42° N. latitude, and between about 94° and 102° W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Nebraska, on the east by Missouri, on the south by the Indian Territory, and on the west by Colorado. It is about 400 miles long, from east to west, and 200 miles wide, from north to south.

TOPOGRAPHY.

“The general surface of Kansas is a gently undulating prairie, having no marked features like those of other prairie States, except, perhaps, the diversity presented by a more rolling surface. The division of land is of two classes. First to mention is the timber and rich alluvial bottom lands, bordering rivers and creeks, the estimated area of which is ten million acres, being fully five times the amount of all improved lands in the State at the present time. To the second belongs the upland or rolling prairie, the soil of which averages from 2 to 3 feet in depth, with a subsoil of fertilizing qualities which will, by careful cultivation, prove inexhaustible. This class of land is considered, by far, preferable for the raising of grains and fruits, while the bottom land is selected for corn, hemp, vegetables, and grasses. But such is the uniform character of the general surface of Kansas, that nearly every quarter section within its limits is capable of cultivation. Timber is confined mainly to the borders of rivers and creeks, and is not superabundant; yet its scarcity is compensated for in a great

measure by the very general distribution of rock throughout the State, which is easy of access, and furnishes the best of building and fencing material.

“No mountain ranges, swamps, sloughs, or lakes exist in the State, except in some instances where rivers have changed their beds, leaving small lakes. Water-courses are well distributed over the State. Their usual course is south of east. Among the most important streams may be mentioned the Arkansas and Neosho on the south, the Kansas River and its tributaries in the northern part, and the Missouri River forming the eastern boundary. The descent of the Kansas River may be regarded as showing the rapidity of the water-courses of the State. From its mouth, west 100 miles, the fall is a little over 2 feet to the mile; for the second and third hundred miles, about 6 feet to the mile; and for the last one hundred miles, about 7 feet to the mile; making a total fall of over 2000 feet in 400 miles. Water-powers are not abundant, but several are being improved on the Neosho and other smaller streams.” *

A paper, recently published under the authority of the State, thus describes the rivers of Kansas:

“*The Kansas River* is the largest in the State, and one of the most beautiful streams of water in the West. It is formed by the junction of the Republican and Smoky Hill, near Junction City, in the central part of the State, and flows in an easterly direction for a distance of 150 miles, through a rich fertile valley, from 3 to 7 miles in width, and empties into the Missouri River at Wyandotte City, the eastern terminus of the Union Pacific Railroad. *The Republican River* comes down from Colorado, through the northwestern portion of the State, coursing in a southeasterly direction through a rich, wild region of country, for a distance of over 300 miles. *The Smoky Hill* derives its source from the confluence of several smaller streams in the eastern part of Colorado, and flows to the east through the central part of the State, to its junction with the Republican. Along the rich valley of this river, a daily line of stage-coaches pass from the western terminus of the Union Pacific Railroad to Denver City. *The Neosho River* rises near the centre of the State, and flows to the southeast through a rich agricultural and stock-growing country, emptying into Grand River, near the southeast corner of Kansas. The Neosho Valley is from 3 to 7 miles in width, and contains some of the most beautiful, rich, and

* Report of the Surveyor-General of Kansas.

desirable lands in the State. *The Arkansas River*, collecting the snows of the Rocky Mountains, flows in an easterly direction through the southwestern part of the State, for a distance of 300 miles. *The Great Nemaha* rises in the north-central part of the State, and flows east, emptying into the Missouri River at the northeast corner of the State. There is a sufficiency of timber on its banks for all practical purposes in the country through which it passes. *The Osage* courses through a fine region of country in southern Kansas, about midway between the valleys of the Kansas and Neosho. The Potawatomie and other smaller streams flow into the Osage. The valleys of these rivers contain some of the most valuable farms in the State. *The Big Blue*, from Nebraska Territory, flows to the south, through the north-central part of the State, emptying into the Kansas River at the city of Manhattan. *The Solomon* rises in the northwestern part of the State, flows in a southeasterly direction, and empties into the Smoky Hill, about 30 miles west from Junction City. The source and general direction of the Verdigris, Cottonwood, Grasshopper, Grand, Saline, and all other Kansas rivers, may be seen by referring to Ream's Map of Kansas. In addition to the above is the Missouri River, which washes the eastern shore of the State for a distance of over 100 miles. This river, navigable at all times, is a source of great value to the State, and especially to Leavenworth, Atchison, Wyandotte, White Cloud, Doniphan, and other cities that stand upon its banks. It is impossible to draw a line of distinction between different localities, the whole State being supplied with an abundance of pure, clear cold water. Besides the clear running streams and cool, refreshing springs in the different localities, the best quality of water is also obtained by digging wells on the high prairies—ranging from 10 to 30 feet in depth."

MINERALS.

White and blue limestone are found in large quantities. Coal abounds, and is of an excellent quality. Sandstone, suitable for building, is quarried to a considerable extent, and marble, capable of receiving a fine polish, is found. Salt springs are numerous.

CLIMATE.

The climate is mild. The winters are short, and but little snow falls. The spring sets in about the first of March, and soon after the prairies begin to glitter with a profusion of beautiful wild flowers.

The heat of the summer is tempered by a cool and refreshing breeze which sweeps over the State.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The soil is deep, rich, and fertile. In the valleys it is often four or five feet deep, and rests upon a subsoil of clay. On the prairies it is about 3 feet deep, and rests upon a subsoil composed of clay and sand.

In 1870, there were about 1,000,000 acres of improved land in Kansas. In the same year the returns were as follows:

Bushels of wheat,	2,800,000
“ Indian corn,	24,500,000
“ oats,	1,500,000
“ Irish potatoes,	1,500,000
“ rye,	20,000
“ barley,	25,000
Number of horses,	35,301
“ asses and mules,	1,990
“ milch cows,	41,310
“ sheep,	31,820
“ swine,	161,310
“ young cattle,	71,863
Value of domestic animals,	\$6,631,450
Tons of hay,	250,000

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

Kansas is advancing rapidly in the work of internal improvements. At the close of the year 1872, there were 1760 miles of completed railroads within the State. The eastern division of the Union Pacific Railroad has been completed from Wyandotte and Leavenworth, on the Missouri River, to Sheridan, near the border of Colorado, a distance of 405 miles, and has been extended to Denver City, Colorado. The central branch of the same road extends from Atchison, on the Missouri, to Waterville, in Marshall county, a distance of 100 miles. A road unites Wyandotte and Leavenworth, (25 miles apart) extending along the bank of the Missouri. Roads are in progress in other parts of the State, and are being pushed forward with energy and rapidity.

EDUCATION.

Although so young a State, Kansas, in proportion to her population and means, is not far behind her older sisters in her system of public education.

A State University is in operation at Lawrence, and is gradually becoming an excellent institution. It is endowed with a fund of \$10,000, and 46,080 acres of land, besides the grounds occupied by it.

The State also possesses an Agricultural College, to which a military department has been added, and a flourishing normal school, at the town of Emporia.

The educational system is under the control of a Superintendent of Public Schools, the counties have each a separate Superintendent, and the school districts are each in charge of a Board of Trustees.

There is a permanent school fund, which is to be increased by sales of public lands, and taxes are levied for the support of the schools.

In 1870, there were 2068 school districts in the State. The number of pupils was 63,218, and the average daily attendance, 39,401.

A number of fine private schools are in operation in Kansas, but we have no returns from them.

There are about 97 newspapers and magazines published in the State.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The Penitentiary is located near Leavenworth, and when completed will be one of the finest institutions of its kind in the West. In November, 1870, it contained 209 convicts.

The Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb is at Olathe. It is in a flourishing condition, and contains about 41 pupils.

The Insane Asylum is at Ossawatimie. It is not provided with sufficient accommodations, but is conducted upon an excellent and successful plan. In 1870, the number of inmates was 41.

The Institution for the Blind, at Wyandotte, contained 23 pupils in 1868, the year of its opening.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, there were 301 churches in Kansas. The value of church property was about \$1,722,700.

FINANCES.

In 1874, the total State debt was \$1,341,775. The receipts of the Treasury, for the fiscal year ending November 30th, 1874, were \$995,102, and the expenditures \$976,805.

In the same year there were 5 National banks, with a capital of \$400,000, doing business in the State.

GOVERNMENT.

Every male citizen of the United States, and every foreigner who has lawfully declared his intention to become a citizen, who is 21 years old, and has resided in the State six months, and in the township thirty days, is entitled to vote at the elections. Idiots, insane persons, convicts, persons in the military or naval service of the Union, and participants in the Rebellion, are excluded from the ballot.

The Government is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Auditor, Treasurer, and Attorney-General, and a Legislature consisting of a Senate and House of Representatives, all chosen by the people. The State officers and Senators are elected for two years, and the Representatives for one year. The general election is held in November, and the Legislature meets annually in January.

The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court, District Courts, and County Courts. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and two Associate Justices. All judges are elected by the people, those of the Supreme Court for six years, and those of the District Courts for four years.

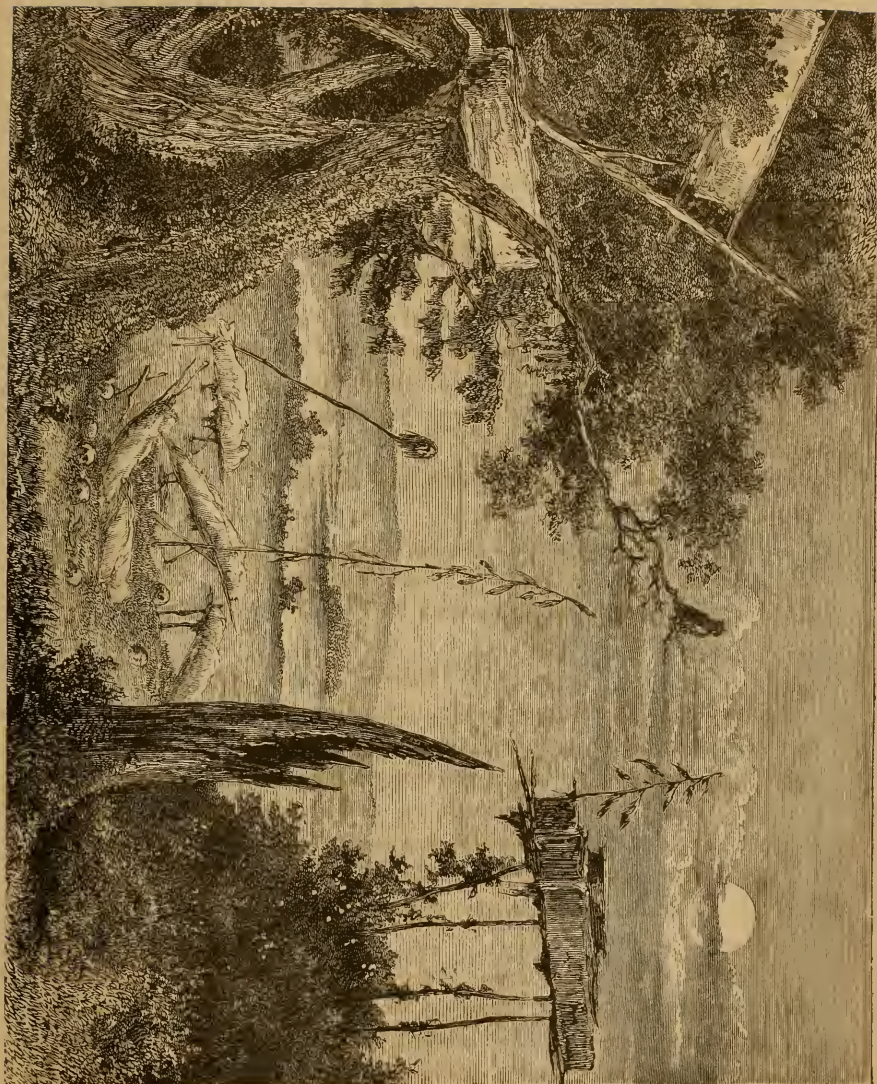
The seat of Government is established at Topeka.

The State is divided into 75 organized counties. More will be added when the western part is laid off.

HISTORY.

Kansas originally formed a part of the Louisiana purchase. It was first visited by M. Dutisne, a French officer, in 1719. In 1804, Lewis and Clark passed up the Missouri River on their exploring expedition, and, in 1827, Fort Leavenworth, on the Missouri River, was built by the United States. Kansas was occupied mostly by Indians as late as 1854. By the terms of the Missouri Compromise, slavery was forever excluded from this region, as it lay north of 36° 30' N. latitude.

Until the year 1850, the vast region lying between the western and northwestern borders of Missouri and the Rocky Mountains, was called by the general and somewhat indefinite name of "the Platte Country;" the name being derived from the Platte River. It was known to be a region of great fertility. Across it swept the grand trails of the overland route to the Pacific and to Utah. The people of the New England States were particularly anxious that the Indian



INDIAN CEMETERY.



INDIANS ATTACKING UNITED STATES MAIL COACH.

reservations which covered the eastern part should be bought up by the Government, and the country thrown open to emigration. Petitions to this effect were presented to the Thirty-Second Congress, but no action was taken upon them until December, 1852, when Mr. Hall, of Missouri, introduced a bill into the House to organize the "Territory of Platte." It was referred to the Territorial Committee, which, in February, 1853, reported a bill organizing the "Territory of Nebraska." The southern delegates at once endeavored to open the proposed Territory to slavery, notwithstanding the fact that that institution was forbidden by the Missouri Compromise. The free States opposed this effort, and nothing definite was accomplished until January, 1854, when Senator Douglas, of Illinois, introduced a bill dividing the district into two Territories, to be called Kansas and Nebraska. He also proposed in this bill to repeal the Missouri Compromise restriction, and leave the question of slavery or free labor to be decided by the people of the Territories themselves. This fatal measure divided the people of the States into two parties. Those in favor of slavery supported the bill, but the friends of free labor opposed it.

The bill was passed by Congress, and approved by the President, in 1854. The Indian reservations were bought up, and the Territories thrown open to emigration.

Kansas being a more fertile Territory than Nebraska, naturally attracted the greater number of settlers. The South made no attempt to settle it, but the New England States sent out emigrants in great numbers. The people living on the border of Missouri had long since resolved that Kansas should be a slave-holding State, and now set to work to prevent free soil settlers from entering it. Nevertheless, the Free State men persevered, and in a few months after the Territory was organized the town of Lawrence was founded by 100 families from New England. Other settlements were established soon after, and the population increased very fast.

A. H. Reeder was appointed Governor by President Pierce. He endeavored to execute the laws faithfully, but was no match for the determined and fierce pro-slavery leaders. He ordered an election for members of a Territorial Legislature to be held on the 30th of March, 1855, but on that day Kansas was invaded by large numbers of Missourians, who succeeded in electing a pro-slavery Legislature.

Six districts at once forwarded to the Governor protests against the elections, showing beyond all reasonable doubt that they had

been controlled by citizens of Missouri. The Governor, who was anxious to do justice to all parties, ordered a new election in these districts, each of which, with the exception of Leavenworth, returned a Free Soil delegate. The new delegates, however, were refused their seats upon the assembling of the Legislature, and the successful candidates at the original election admitted. A number of outrages were about the same time perpetrated by the Missourians upon members of the Free Soil Party.

The Governor had summoned the Legislature to meet at Pawnee City, on the Kansas River, a town nearly 100 miles from the border, and supposed to be far enough away to be free from the intimidation practised by the Missourians; but as soon as the Legislature assembled it changed the place of meeting to Shawnee Mission, on the Missouri border. The resolution was vetoed by the Governor, passed over his veto, and at once carried into effect. Upon reassembling at Shawnee Mission, the Legislature proceeded to adopt the laws of Missouri as the laws of Kansas, and to frame a series of statutes designedly cruel and oppressive. These acts were vetoed by the Governor, who was removed by the President, and Wilson Shannon, of Ohio, appointed in his place.

Meanwhile, the New England and other Free Soil men had come into the Territory quietly and rapidly, until at length they outnumbered the pro-slavery settlers. They now felt themselves strong enough to resist the outrages of the Missourians, and, accordingly, on the 5th of September, 1855, held a Convention, in which they distinctly repudiated the Government that had been forced upon them by men who were not residents of the Territory. They announced their intention to take no part in the election of a delegate to Congress, which had been ordered by the Territorial authorities for the 1st of October, and summoned the actual residents to send delegates to a Convention to meet at Topeka on the 19th of September. This Convention organized an Executive Committee for the Territory, and ordered an election to be held for the purpose of choosing a delegate to Congress. Governor Reeder was nominated and elected to Congress. On the 23d of October, the Convention adopted a free State Constitution, and forwarded it to Congress, with a petition for the admission of Kansas into the Union.

A long and bloody struggle now began between the Free Soil and Pro-Slavery men in the Territory, during which the latter were reënforced by great numbers of young men from the Southern States, who

came into Kansas for the avowed purpose of compelling the people to submit to slavery. Numerous conflicts occurred between them, and both sides were guilty of many unjustifiable acts. The odium, however, properly belongs to the Pro-Slavery men, as they were the aggressors. They captured and sacked the town of Lawrence, burned several houses, and inflicted upon it damage to the extent of \$150,000. The Federal Government usually lent its aid to the Pro-Slavery party, and did what it could to fasten slavery upon the Territory.

In 1857, the Pro-Slavery party held a Convention at Lecompton, and adopted a Constitution known as the "Lecompton Constitution." The administration of Mr. Buchanan exerted all its power and influence to secure the admission of Kansas under this instrument, notwithstanding the plain fact that a majority of the people of Kansas were opposed to it. It was finally submitted to the people, and rejected by a vote of 11,300 against it, to 1788 votes in its favor.

In January, 1859, the civil strife having subsided in the Territory, and the Free Soil men having a majority in the Legislature, a Convention was summoned at Wyandotte. It met in July, and adopted the *Wyandotte Constitution*, which was ratified by the people by a large majority. This Constitution was then submitted to Congress, and a bill admitting the State of Kansas was passed by the Lower House early in 1860. The Senate, however, failed to act on the bill. At the next session, the measure was revived, and on the 30th of January, 1861, Kansas was admitted into the Union as a free State. The bitterness of the struggle had passed from the Territory to the country at large, and it now culminated in the great civil war, which for four years desolated the land.

During the late war the State furnished 19,584 men to the service of the Union. It was several times invaded by raiding parties from the Confederate army, west of the Mississippi, one of which sacked and burned the city of Lawrence.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the principal places of Kansas are, Leavenworth City, Wyandotte, Atchison, and Lawrence.

TOPEKA,

In Shawnee county, is the capital of the State. It is situated on the south side of the Kansas River, 25 miles west of Lawrence, and 55 miles, in an air line, southwest of Leavenworth. Latitude 39° 5' N.,

longitude 95° 40' W. The city is located on high ground, which rises gradually from the river. It is regularly laid out with wide streets, and is well built. It is growing rapidly, and promises to be one of the most important places in the State. The principal building is the new State Capitol, now nearly completed. The entire plan is formed with a view to the future wants of the State, and will be carried into execution as the needs of the Government demand. The whole structure, which is to be built of magnesian limestone, will be one of the finest of the kind in the country. The eastern wing alone will cost the State \$450,000. The city contains about 5 or 6 churches, several excellent schools, and 2 newspaper offices. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870 the population was 5790.

The city derives its name from "Topeka," an Indian word, signifying "wild potatoe," large quantities of which grow along the river. The first settlement was made in December, 1854, by a company of emigrants from Lawrence. The place played a prominent part in the "Border war," which preceded the admission of the State into the Union, and was for a time the free State capital of Kansas.

LEAVENWORTH,

The principal city of the State, is beautifully situated in the county of the same name, on the west bank of the Missouri River, 45 miles east-northeast of Topeka, 70 miles south of St. Joseph, Mo., and 495 miles above St. Louis. The city is laid out in rectangular blocks, with broad streets, which are well graded and macadamized. At the river's edge is a natural levee of rock extending along the entire front of the city. The city is well built, and is rapidly improving. It contains about 18 churches, several excellent public schools, a medical college, about 6 private schools, including a commercial college and female seminary, a theatre, a mercantile library, and 3 daily and several weekly newspaper offices. It is lighted with gas, and is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870 the population was 17,849.

Leavenworth was laid out in 1854, and has grown with astonishing rapidity. It now conducts an important trade along the Mississippi River, and is connected by railway with all parts of the country. In 1864, just ten years after its settlement, the value of taxable real and personal estate in Leavenworth was \$4,103,562. The total business of the city for the same year amounted to \$18,000,000.

NEBRASKA.

Area,	75,995 Square Miles
Population in 1860,	28,842
Population in 1870,	122,993

THE State of Nebraska is situated between 40° and 43° N. latitude, and between 96° and 104° W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Dakota Territory, on the east by Iowa, on the south by Kansas and Colorado Territory, and on the west by Colorado and Wyoming Territories.

TOPOGRAPHY.

“Nebraska extends from the Missouri westward to the Rocky Mountains, with an extreme length of 412 miles, decreasing to 310 miles on the southern border, its extreme width being 208 miles, diminishing to 138 miles on the west. Its area is 75,995 square miles, or 48,636,800 acres. The country through its entire length dips toward the Missouri River, being upon the western slope of the great central basin of the North American continent. The larger portion is elevated and undulating prairie; there are no mountains or high hills; the bottom lands of the river valleys are generally level. Above these, from 40 to 100 feet, are second bottoms or table lands, sloping backward to the bluffs, which range with the general level of the country. These bluffs sometimes rise hundreds of feet above the river level; back of these is the undulating prairie, well watered with springs and running streams, being covered with excellent grasses. This prairie resembles the waves of the ocean suddenly arrested in their swell and changed into soil and rock. In remarkable contrast with the general appearance of the State is the tract known as Mau-



CROSSING THE PLAINS.

vaies Terres, in the western part of the State, 90 miles long and 30 wide, produced by some powerful agencies of denudation and degradation of the land. Viewed from a distance, it seems like some deserted abode of civilization; the prismatic and columnar masses appear as residences of modern architecture or public buildings, with towers, columns, and walls. A near approach dispels the illusion, the imposing forms of architectural beauty resolve themselves into masses of rocks with labyrinthine defiles. These first appearances, however, are not correct exponents of geological character, as they are found upon examination to contain some excellent lands.” *

The *Missouri River* forms the eastern boundary and a part of the northern. It receives the waters of the principal streams of the State. The *Republican Fork of the Kansas* drains the southern counties, and the *Niobrara* forms a part of the northern boundary, and flows into the Missouri. The *Platte* or *Nebraska River* is the principal stream in the State. It is formed by the union of its North and South forks, in the centre of the State—the former rising in Wyoming, and the latter in Colorado. The general course of the main stream and its forks is eastward to the Missouri, into which it empties below Omaha

* Report of the General Land-Office.

City. Including the North Fork (which is 800 miles long), the Platte is 1200 miles long. As its name signifies, it is a shallow river. In the summer, it is but a succession of shallow pools; but during the spring freshets, steamers can navigate it for a considerable distance. The *Elkhorn River* drains the northeast part of the State, and flows into the Platte near its mouth.

MINERALS.

Thin beds of coal exist in several parts of the State. Limestone and sandstone abound, and salt springs are frequent, and yield an excellent quality of salt.

CLIMATE, SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

"The climate is milder than the Eastern States within the same parallels of latitude; the summer is of high temperature, but the sultriness is alleviated by cool, refreshing winds blowing over the prairies. The quantity of rain is less than falls on the Atlantic side. This dryness does not become appreciable east of the 98th meridian. West of that meridian the soil, so far as known, is arid and not so well suited to agriculture; that part of the State to the eastward, however, is not deficient in moisture. The peculiar character of soil and climate indicates that stock-raising will become a very important and remunerative branch of its agricultural enterprise. The dryness of the climate and the copious vegetation, especially of nutritious grasses, will attract capital, with a view to the establishment of wool-raising interests. The soil of the eastern portion is exceedingly fertile; the prairies are covered with a heavy sod, the matted growth of ages of vegetation, several teams of oxen being required to break it; the subsequent tillage is comparatively easy, the ground being rendered light and mellow. Along the rivers are groves of oak, walnut, cottonwood, hickory, and willow; very dense forests of cottonwood grow along the Missouri River above the mouth of the Platte." *

There are about 1,000,000 acres of improved land in the State. The principal agricultural returns are as follows:

Bushels of wheat,	2,125,000
" Indian corn,	5,000,000
" rye,	14,000

* General Land-Office Report.

Bushels of oats,	1,600,000
“ barley,	220,000
“ potatoes,	800,000
Tons of hay,	170,000
Number of horses,	32,000
“ asses and mules,	3,000
“ milch cows,	35,000
“ sheep,	30,000
“ swine,	65,000
Value of domestic animals,	\$8,000,000

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

The great Pacific Railway extends entirely across this State, along the north bank of the Platte River, from Omaha into Wyoming Territory. There are 2143 miles of railway within the State.

EDUCATION.

There is a Normal School at Peru, which has been liberally endowed by the State. It was opened in October, 1867, and is succeeding admirably.

A Superintendent of Public Instruction has the control of the schools, subject to the supervision of a State Board of Education, which consists of himself, the Governor, Treasurer, Secretary of State, and five other persons appointed by the Governor.

One-sixteenth of all the Government lands in the State, amounting to 2,643,080 acres, is set apart for the creation of a public school fund, while 46,080 acres have been given for the endowment of a State University, and 90,000 acres for the State Agricultural College. The fund arising from these lands cannot be expended. Only the interest can be used. The minimum price at which they can be sold is \$5 per acre, so that the fund to be derived from this source cannot be less than over \$13,000,000. The whole amount derived from the school fund in 1869-70 was \$77,999. The whole number of children in attendance upon the public schools in the same year was 32,619.

FINANCES.

The State has no public debt. Its Constitution prohibits it from incurring a debt in excess of \$50,000 in amount. In 1870, the total assessed value of property in Nebraska was \$53,000,000.

GOVERNMENT.

The Constitution of this State was adopted in 1866. By its terms, every male citizen of the United States, and every foreigner who has legally declared his intention to become a citizen, who is 21 years old, and has resided in the State one year, and the required time in the county, is entitled to vote at the elections.

The Government is vested in a Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Auditor, and Attorney-General, and a Legislature, consisting of a Senate (of 13 members) and a House of Representatives (of 39 members), all chosen by the people. The State officers are elected for four years, and members of the Legislature for two years.

The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court, District Courts, Probate Courts, and in Justices of the Peace. All judges are elected by the people. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and two Associates, chosen for six years.

The seat of Government is located at Lincoln.

The State is divided into 51 organized counties.

HISTORY.

Nebraska was originally a part of the Louisiana purchase. It was organized as a Territory in 1854. Kansas attracted the greater part of the emigrants, and so occupied the attention of the pro-slavery party that Nebraska escaped the struggle by which her neighbor was torn. Emigration was very rapid until the financial panic of 1857 checked it. The Territory was some time in recovering from the effects of this crisis, which has been succeeded by a slower but more substantial growth in prosperity. In 1860, its population was 28,842. The Pacific Railroad begins at Omaha, the principal city of the State, and will undoubtedly do much to build up and populate the young commonwealth.

On the 21st of March, 1864, Congress passed an Act enabling the people to organize a State Government. A Constitution was ratified by the people on the 8th of June, 1866, and on the 9th of February, 1867, Nebraska was admitted into the Union as a State.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

LINCOLN,

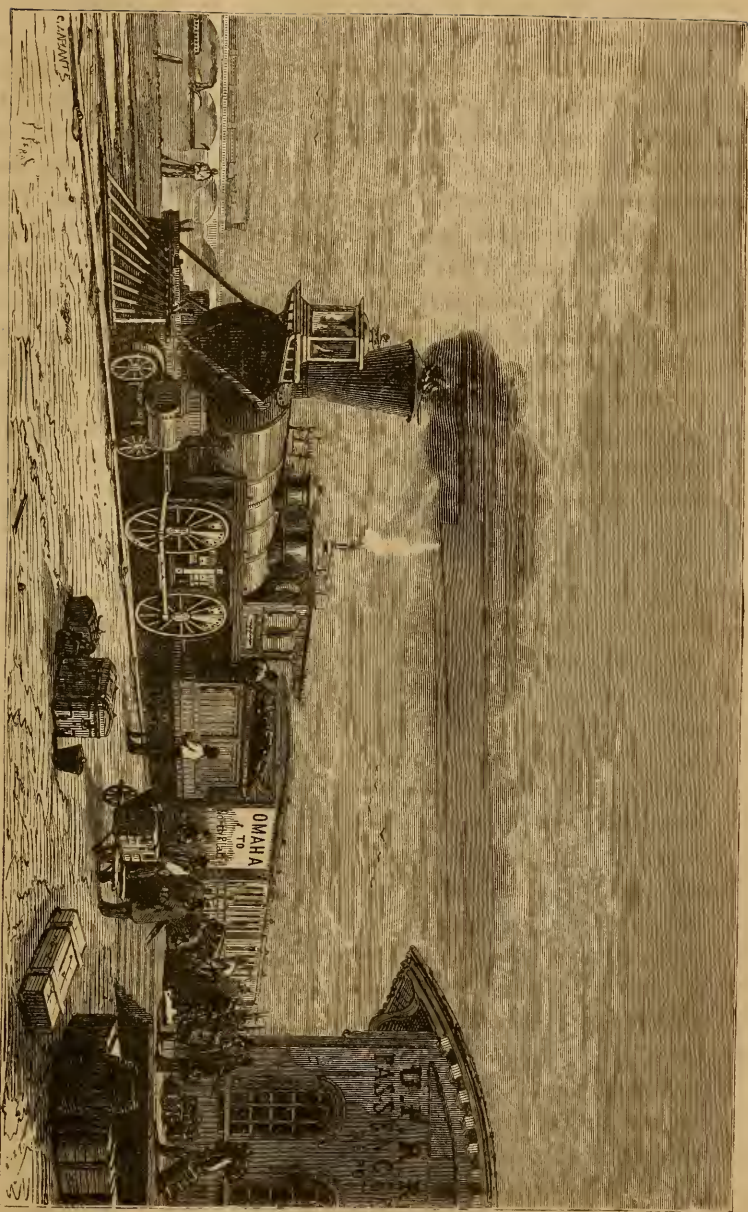
The capital of the State, is situated in Lancaster county, 80 miles southwest of Omaha, and 50 miles west of Nebraska City, with which it is

connected by railway. The town sprang up suddenly in the summer of 1867, and grew with remarkable rapidity. Before eighteen months had elapsed, it had grown to such an extent in buildings and residents that on this account, as well as the prospective benefits resulting from its local position to the whole community, the people by a majority of votes selected it as the capital of Nebraska. Towards the close of the year 1868, the seat of Government was removed from Omaha, and permanently located at Lincoln. A suitable building having been prepared for that purpose, the Legislature met here in January, 1869. Considerable progress has been made in establishing public buildings and institutions here. The main portion of the capitol has been built of handsome white limestone, and the foundations of a State University and an Insane Asylum are laid. A Penitentiary and an Agricultural College are to be erected here, having been authorized by the Legislature at its last session. The town is built on the open prairie in the midst of a delightfully healthy, beautiful and fertile country. The population is about 2000, and is increasing rapidly. Three newspapers are published here.

OMAHA,

Sometimes called *Omaha City*, the largest and most important city of the State, is situated in Douglas county, on the west bank of the Missouri River, opposite the city of Council Bluffs, in Iowa. It is 18 miles above the mouth of the Platte River, 80 miles northeast of Lincoln, and 250 miles by river above St. Joseph, Missouri. The city lies on a plateau between the river and the bluffs. From the summits of the bluffs a magnificent view of the wide and undulating prairie is obtained. The city is regularly laid out. The streets are wide, cross each other at right-angles, and are paved with stone, with side-walks of brick. The principal public buildings are the old *State House*, and the *Court House*. The former is of brick, and occupies a commanding site. The city contains about 11 or 12 churches, several good public and private schools, and 5 newspaper offices. It is lighted with gas, and is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 16,083.

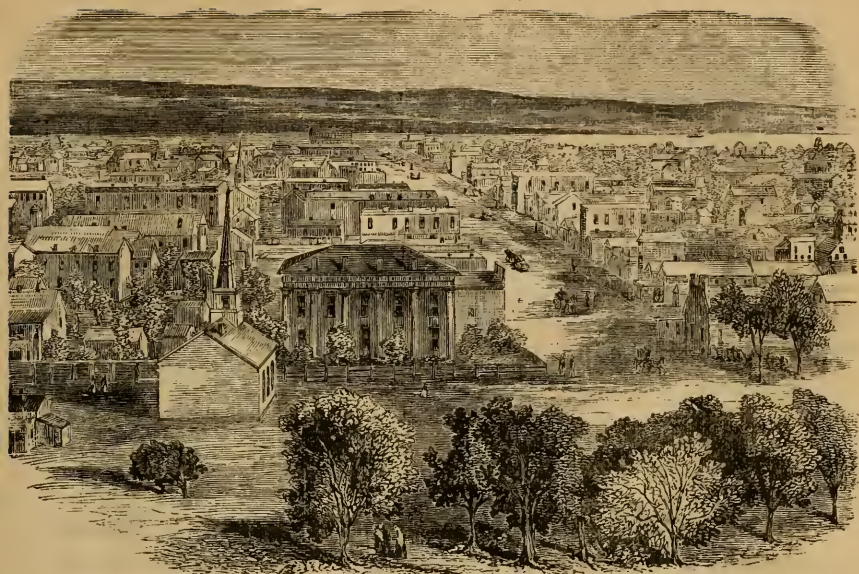
The Missouri is navigable for large steamers for some distance above Omaha, and the city carries on a considerable river trade. Omaha is connected with all parts of the country by railway, being connected with Council Bluffs by a steam ferry. It is the eastern terminus of the Pacific Railway, and is, consequently, a place of considerable im-



DEPOT AT OMAHA CITY.



MINERS AROUND THEIR CAMP FIRE.



OMAHA.

portance. It is largely engaged in the sale and transportation of goods to the mines, plains, and frontier forts. Many of the emigrants going westward obtain their outfits here. Omaha was founded in 1854. In 1860, it contained but 1883 inhabitants. It derives its name from a tribe of Indians.

NEBRASKA CITY,

The second city of the State, is situated in Otoe county, on the right or western bank of the Missouri River, 28 miles below the mouth of the Platte River, 50 miles east of Lincoln, and 96 miles, by water, south of Omaha. It is built on ground which rises as it recedes from the river. The buildings are mostly of wood, but the town has a bright and pleasing appearance. It contains the county buildings, 7 or 8 churches, 2 public halls, 4 public schools, and 3 newspaper offices. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 6050.

The city conducts a large river trade, and is actively engaged in fitting out emigrants for the plains and in sending supplies to the frontier towns. The Pacific Railway has taken away a great share of this business. There are valuable salt springs in the western part of the county.

N E V A D A .

Area,	112,090 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	6,857
Population in 1870,	42,491

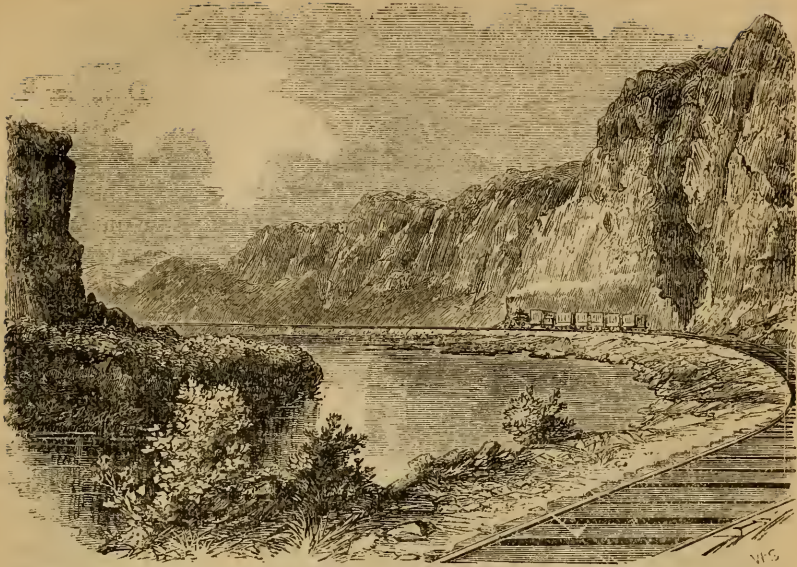
THE State of Nevada is situated between 37° and 42° N. latitude, and between 115° and 120° W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Oregon and Idaho Territory, on the east by Utah and Arizona Territories, and on the south and west by California. Its extreme length, from north to south, is about 348 miles, and its extreme width, from east to west, about 265 miles.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The surface of the State is generally mountainous, and much of it is a barren desert. The Sierra Nevada range forms the western boundary, and the Humboldt Mountains occupy the centre. The East Humboldt Mountains extend north and south through the upper eastern part of the State. A large part of Fremont's Basin lies in Nevada, at an elevation of 4000 feet above the sea. Two-thirds of the State is a bleak desert, which can neither be inhabited nor cultivated.

There are no large rivers in Nevada, and the soil is only supplied with the necessary amount of water by artificial means. *The Humboldt River* rises in the northeast of the State, and flowing westward; empties into Humboldt Lake. A small stream, called *Walker River*, flows through the southwest and empties into Walker Lake. *Carson River* rises in the southwest and flows east into Carson Lake.

“The only lakes of any considerable size in the State are those formed by the Humboldt, Walker, Carson, and Truckee rivers, and



PALISADES—HUMBOLDT RIVER : SCENE ON THE CENTRAL PACIFIC
RAILROAD.

bearing the names of those streams respectively, together with *Pyramid Lake*, the largest of the group, formed by the waters of the Truckee River. *Lake Tahoe*, with one-third of its area only within the borders of Nevada, is a beautiful sheet of water, 21 miles long and 10 wide, and though elevated more than 6000 feet above the level of the sea it never freezes over, nor does the temperature of its waters vary much from 57 degrees in summer or winter, owing probably to its being fed by springs. This lake, like Lake Pyramid, abounds in trout of large size and fine flavor, and is surrounded on every side by lofty mountains, which, rising abruptly from its shores, are covered for nearly two-thirds of the year with snow, and are heavily timbered with forests of pine, spruce, and fir. Pyramid Lake, which has a depth of 1500 feet, is 12 miles wide by 30 in length, and is situated in the western part of the State; its scenery is extremely grand, being walled about with mountains 2000 to 3000 feet high. *Mono Lake* is about 14 miles long and 9 wide; it is so acid and nauseating as to render it not only unfit for drinking, but also for bathing. Leather immersed in it is soon destroyed, and no animal, not even a fish or frog, can for more than a short time exist in it. The only thing able to live in or upon the waters of this lake is a species of fly which,

springing from a larva bred in its bosom, shortly dies, and, collecting on the surface, drifts in great quantities to the shore, to be gathered and eaten by the Indians. None but the strongest winds can ripple the surface of this desolate lake; it may aptly be called a Dead Sea, its bitter and fatal waters rendering it literally such, while all its surroundings, wild, gloomy, and foreboding, are highly suggestive of sterility and death. There are many warm and cold springs in the State, some of which are much resorted to for the curative qualities of their waters." *

MINERALS.

Nevada is especially rich in minerals. Gold, silver, quicksilver, copper, lead, and iron are found in great abundance. The silver mines of this State, however, are the principal source of her wealth. They yield immense sums annually. The Comstock lode produces about \$16,500,000 worth of silver every year. It furnishes the principal portion of the metal produced in the State, and is thus described by Ross Browne:

"The Comstock lode runs along the eastern slope of the Washoe Mountains, at the foot of Mount Davidson, its loftiest summit. Its outcrop is not by any means continuous, consisting of parallel belts of quartz, extending from east to west, in some places nearly 1000 feet, which show themselves chiefly on the tops of the spurs, running down from the main ridge. The western of these quartz seams, being of a hard crystalline texture, form the most prominent outcrops, but experience has shown them to be of less value than the eastern bodies, which, from their different composition, have been more easily disintegrated, and are often covered up by the debris from the higher and steeper portions of the mountain. The vein has been more or less thoroughly explored, and its continuity established by underground workings for a length of about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles, though the productive portion forms but a small proportion of the whole, as barren spots of great extent intervene between the bonanzas or ore bodies. Its 'strike' or course, as shown by the exposure of the west wall, in numerous places, is nearly magnetic north and south (north 16 degrees east by true meridian). But little doubt now exists that the Comstock is a true fissure vein, with a width of from 20 feet upward. The total product of the Comstock lode, for the year ending December 31st, 1867, is estimated by the most reliable authorities at \$17,500,000. It is estimated that other

* Ross Browne's Report.



SILVER MINING.

districts in Nevada have yielded during the same period \$2,500,000, making the total product of Nevada for the calendar year, 1867, \$20,000,000. The average percentage of gold and silver is about 66 per cent. silver, and 34 per cent. gold. In the outside districts the proportion of gold is considerably less. The amount of ore raised from the mines on the Comstock lode may be put down at the present time at about 1500 tons daily, and the total amount raised since the commencement of operations at about 2,000,000 tons. From information furnished by the superintendents of the following mines, the yield per ton appears to be: Savage Mine—30,250 tons produced in the last six months of 1866, yielded an average of \$12.93 per ton. Hale and Norcross Mine—16,836 tons produced in the same time, yielded an average of \$50.33 per ton. Gould and Curry Mine—62,425 tons produced in 1866, yielded an average of \$28.64 per ton. The total yield of precious metals from the 'Comstock' lode in 5 years, or from 1862 to 1866, inclusive, was \$63,000,000."

Coal is found in small quantities, and there are large deposits of salt and alkalies.

CLIMATE.

The climate, though severe, is not unpleasant, and is exceedingly healthful. The year is divided into the wet and the dry season, as in California.

Agriculture is neglected for the mines, but where the soil can be supplied with water by irrigation, it yields fair crops.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

The Central Pacific Railway of California passes across the northern part of Nevada, from the western boundary into Utah Territory. There are 593 miles of railway within the State.

EDUCATION.

In 1870, there were 38 public schools in the State, attended by 1856 pupils; and 15 private schools, attended by 417 pupils.

The chief control of the schools is vested in a Board of Education, consisting of the Governor, Surveyor-General, and Superintendent of Public Instruction. The last official is the executive officer of the Board, and has the direct supervision of the schools. Each county elects a Superintendent, who directs its educational interests, and reports to the State Superintendent. The counties are divided into districts, each of which is under the immediate control of a Board of Trustees, chosen by the people. Where the voters fail to elect the Trustees, they are appointed by the County Superintendent. The State Superintendent appoints a Board of Examiners, consisting of three competent persons, for each county. These Boards are charged with the duty of examining teachers and granting certificates.

There is a permanent school fund, and measures are on foot for the establishment of schools of a higher grade.

FINANCES.

The State debt in 1874 was about \$733,528, and is payable in coin. During the year 1874, the receipts of the Treasury amounted to \$570,277, and the expenditures to \$641,856.

GOVERNMENT.

The Constitution of Nevada was adopted in 1864. By its terms, every male citizen of the United States, who has resided in the State six months, and in the county thirty days, is entitled to vote at the elections. Convicts, idiots, and insane persons are excluded from the ballot.

The Government is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Comptroller, and Attorney-General, and a Legislature, consisting of a Senate (of 19 members), and an Assembly (of 38 members), all chosen by the people. The Governor and other State officers are elected for four years.

The judicial power is invested in a Supreme Court, District Courts, Probate Courts, and in Justices of the Peace. All judges are elected by the people. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice, and two Associate Justices, chosen for four years.

The seat of Government is established at Carson City.

The State is divided into 17 organized counties.

HISTORY.

Nevada was originally a part of Utah Territory, and constituted the western part of it. In 1861, it was erected into a Territory, and was admitted into the Union as a State on the 31st of October, 1864.

Previous to the discovery of silver, it was almost entirely neglected by emigrants. In the summer of 1859, silver was found in the Washoe district, and as if by magic settlers began to pour in. Virginia City sprang up in a marvellously short time, and in 1864 was the second city on the Pacific coast.

The circumstances attending the discovery of silver, were as follows:

“The Washoe silver mines were first discovered by Mr. Patrick McLaughlin, an ‘honest miner,’ who was working for gold in a gulch or ravine, and where he was making \$100 a day to the hand. As he and his companions followed up the gulch, it paid even better, until, on arriving at a certain point, it gave out altogether, and they struck a vein of pure sulphuret of silver, which they at first supposed to be coal, but observing that it was very heavy, they concluded it must be valuable, and sent one of their number to San Francisco with some of the black ore to ascertain its value. It was given to a Mr.

Killalee, an old Mexican miner, to assay. Killalee took the ore home and assayed it. The result was so astounding that the old man got terribly excited. The next morning poor Killalee was found dead in his bed. He had long been in bad health, and the excitement killed him. Immediate search was made for the original deposit, which resulted in the since famous Comstock lode. Where first found, this lode has no outcropping or other indication to denote its presence. The first assay of the rock taken from the lode when first struck gave a return of \$265 of gold and silver per ton, there being a larger proportion of gold than silver. Subsequent assays of ore taken from the vein, as it was sunk upon, showed a rapid increase in richness, until the enormous return was made of \$7000 to the ton—\$4000 in gold and \$3000 in silver. Still later assays of choice pieces of ore have given a return of \$15,000 to the ton. In this case these ounce assays did not mislead, but a vast difference is to be observed between rich ore and a rich mine. A poor mine often yields specimens of rich ore, which through the *ounce assay*, serves but to delude. The true test of the value of a silver mine is the *quantity* of the ore, and the average yield of the ore in *bulk* after the establishment of reduction works."

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, Virginia City, and Austin, are the principal towns.

CARSON CITY,

The capital of the State, is situated in Ormsby county, at the eastern base of the Sierra Nevada Mountains, about 4 miles west of Carson River, 250 miles (by railway) east of San Francisco, and 15 miles south-by-west of Virginia City. It was founded in 1858, and lies in a fertile plain in the midst of some of the grandest scenery on the Continent. The State buildings, the Court House, State Prison, and United States Mint, are the principal edifices. In 1870, the population was 3042.

VIRGINIA CITY,

The largest and most important city in the State, is situated in Storey county, among rocky ledges and ravines, on the eastern slope of Mount Davidson, 15 miles north-northeast of Carson City. The principal streets are level, having been in many places graded through the hard rock. In the business sections are many solid blocks of

stone, five stories high, and the suburbs contain many beautiful and costly private residences. It contains 4 churches and schools, and several newspaper offices. It is lighted with gas, and is supplied with pure spring water, which is distributed through iron pipes. In 1870, the population was 7008.

The city owes its prosperity and growth to the silver mines with which it is surrounded. The famous Comstock lode was discovered here in June, 1859. The mines are the richest in the State, and are said to have yielded in 1864, \$10,425,350 worth of silver. During the great excitement which followed the discovery of silver, Virginia City was the headquarters of all the adventurers who flocked to the mines. At one time the population was from 15,000 to 20,000. Since then it has settled down to a better and more prosperous life.

CALIFORNIA.

Area,	188,981 Square miles.
Population in 1860,	397,994
Population in 1870,	560,223

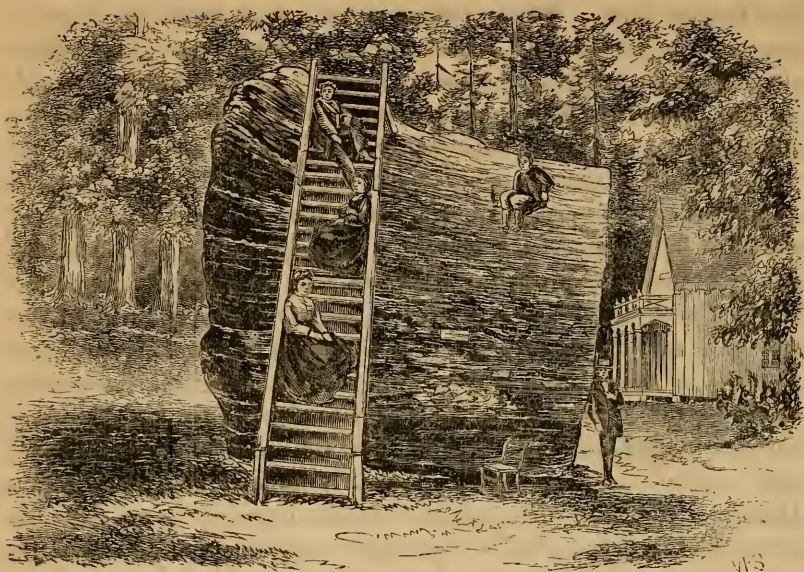
THE State of California is situated between $32^{\circ} 32'$ and 42° N. latitude, and between $114^{\circ} 20'$ and $124^{\circ} 22'$ W. longitude. It is about 700 miles long, and has an average width of 180 miles. It is bounded on the north by Oregon, on the east by Nevada and Arizona, on the south by Old California (which is a part of the Republic of Mexico), and on the west by the Pacific Ocean.

TOPOGRAPHY.

“California is an extremely rugged country, a large portion of its surface being covered with mountains. . . . The Sierra Nevada, or Snowy Mountains, which bound the Sacramento Valley on the east, include a series of ranges which, collectively, are 70 miles wide. The general name for the group is derived from the snow, which is rarely absent from the higher peaks in the range. The Coast Range, which bounds it on the west, also consists of a series of chains, aggregating 40 miles in width, bordering the State from its northern to its southern boundary. There is a most remarkable difference in the structure and conformation of the two series. The Sierra Nevada ranges may be traced in consecutive order for an immense distance, while in the Coast Range all is in confusion and disorder. . . . Those portions of this range which skirt the coast in Marin, Sonoma, and Mendocino counties, between latitude 38° and 40° , are tolerably well timbered; but south of Bodega Bay and north of Mendocino county, except about Monterey Bay and Santa Cruz, the coast line presents a bleak and

sterile appearance. All the valleys in the range which are open to the coast are narrow, and trend nearly east and west. The Salinas, the most extensive of these coast valleys, is nearly 90 miles in length, by 8 to 14 miles in width, a large portion of which is adapted to agricultural purposes—being exceedingly fertile, producing abundance of wild oats and clover, where not under cultivation. The Russian River valley, which also opens to the sea, is also very fertile. Further inland, sheltered from the cool sea breezes by the outer range of mountains, are many tolerably broad and very beautiful valleys, which produce the finest grain, fruit and vegetables raised in this part of the coast. . . . The outer coast valleys are generally separated by steep, barren ridges, while those inland, are divided by gently sloping hills, somewhat similar to the rolling prairie lands of Illinois, and are susceptible of cultivation over their entire surface. All the coast valleys are tolerably well watered. . . . To the peculiarly isolated position of Monte Diablo—standing aloof as it does, from the throng of peaks that rise from the Coast Range, like a patrician separated from plebeians, the beauty of its outline commanding the attention of the traveller by land or sea—makes it a landmark not possible to mistake, and causes its summit to be a centre from whence may be viewed a wider range of country than can be seen from almost any other point in the State. On the north, east, and southeast, may be seen a large portion of the great valleys of the Sacramento and San Joaquin, with many thriving towns and villages, environed with gardens and farms, while sweeps and slopes of verdure mark the distant plains with hues inimitable by art. In the extreme distance, as a border to this grand panorama, rising range upon range, is seen the Sierra Nevada mountains, stretching along the horizon upward of 300 miles. In an opposite direction the beautiful valleys of the Coast Range come into view, with all the charming features of prosperous and skilled rural industry, and the broad bay of San Francisco, where are riding at anchor a fleet of ships, from the masts of which the ensigns of nearly all nations may be seen fluttering; while beyond, extending from the water-line to the very summit of the highest hills, is San Francisco City, the home of nearly one-fourth the population of the State. To the right is seen the forts and earthworks that guard the Golden Gate, while beyond, as far as the eye can reach, is the Pacific Ocean, bearing on its bosom numberless vessels, passing to and fro on the peaceful mission of commerce.”*

* “The Natural Wealth of California.” By T. F. Cronise.



ORIGINAL BIG TREE (30 feet in diameter).

The highest peaks of the Coast Range are Mt. San Bernardino, 8500 feet high, Mt. San Gorgonio, 7000 feet, Mt. Hamilton, 4433 feet, Mt. Diablo, 3876 feet, Mt. Ripley, 7500 feet, and Mt. St. John, and Mt. Linn. The height of the last two has not yet been accurately determined. The principal peaks of the Sierra Nevada are Mt. Whitney, 15,000 feet, Mt. Cawiah, 14,000 feet, Mt. Silliman, 11,800 feet, Mt. Tyndall, 14,200 feet, Table Mountain, 13,000 feet, Mt. Brewer, 13,700 feet, Mt. Goddard, 13,000 feet, Mt. Lyell, 13,500, Mt. Dana, 13,500, and Castle Peak, 13,000. In the northern part of the State, the Sierra Nevada and Coast Range unite. The principal peaks of this region are Mt. Shasta, 14,440 feet, Mt. Lassen, Downieville Buttes, 8840 feet, and Pilot Peak, 7300 feet.

The most important valleys along the coast are the Santa Clara, San Gabriel, Los Angeles, Salinas, Pajaro, Amador, San Ramon, Suisun, Napa, Sonoma, Petaluma, Russian River, and Humboldt Bay.

In the southeastern part of the State is a sterile region 140 miles long and 70 miles wide, known as the *Colorado Desert*. When the Colorado River overflows its banks the centre of this tract, which is 70 feet below the level of the sea, is converted into a lake. At other times, it is an arid, dreary waste. North of this desert is a tract called

the *Mohave Basin*. It is watered by a few streams, all of which empty into small salt lakes, which dry up in the summer. The waters of these lakes are strongly impregnated with alkaline salts. No fish can live in them, and the water of some of them scalds the skin of a human being, and produces painful sores.

The coast is indented with several fine bays. Beginning on the north, the most important are Trinidad, Humboldt, Bodega, Tomales, Sir Francis Drake, San Francisco, Monterey, Estero, San Luis, San Pedro, and San Diego Bays. All these, except the Bay of San Francisco, open directly upon the ocean. *San Francisco Bay* is the best harbor on the Pacific Ocean, as well as the largest. It extends inland for about 60 miles, north and south, and is 14 miles wide at its broadest part. About 30 miles from its northern extremity it communicates with the Pacific through a strait two miles long, and about six miles wide, which breaks through the range of highlands which lines the coast at this point. This entrance is very picturesque, and is known as the Golden Gate. The northern part of the bay is called San Pablo Bay, and communicates through the Straits of Carquinez, with Suisin Bay, 16 miles long and 5 miles wide, which is formed by the united waters of the Sacramento and San Joaquin Rivers. The city of San Francisco is situated on the west shore of the southern part of San Francisco Bay, just within the Golden Gate. Several towns lie along the shore, and four or five small islands lie in the bay.

The principal rivers of the State are the Sacramento and the San Joaquin. *The Sacramento River* rises in the northern part of the State, near the foot of Mt. Shasta, and flows in a generally southern direction into Suisin Bay, through which it communicates with the Bay of San Francisco. It is the most important river in the State, is 400 miles long, and is navigable for steamers for 300 miles. It flows through a valley about 50 miles wide, which is almost a perfect level, and is remarkably open. Its principal tributaries (commencing on the north) are the Pitt, Feather, Yuba, and American rivers, which rise along the western slope of the Sierra Nevada. Sacramento City is the principal place on the main river. *The San Joaquin River* rises in the Sierra Nevada, near the centre of the State. It flows south for a short distance, and then, meeting the outlet of Tulare Lake, changes its course, and flows north-northwest into Suisin Bay, at the mouth of the Sacramento. It is about 350 miles long, and is navigable for about 200 or 250 miles. Its chief tributaries rise in the Sierra Nevada. They are the Calaveras, Stanislaus, Tuolumne, and Merced rivers.

The Moquelumne joins the Sacramento and San Joaquin at their junction. It rises in the Sierra Nevada, almost due east from its mouth. The streams which flow into the Pacific (beginning on the north) are the Eel and Russian rivers, above San Francisco Bay, and the Salinas, Guarnas, Santa Inez, Santa Clara, Santa Anna, San Luis, San Diego, and Tia Juana rivers—all small streams. The *Colorado* forms the southeast boundary of the State, and the *Klamath River*, of Oregon, flows through the northwest. Several lakes lie in the State. The principal are Tulare, Clear, Owen Mountain, and Mono Lakes. Tulare Lake is 35 miles long, and empties its waters into the San Joaquin River. The rest are small lakes.

MINERALS.

“The great and distinguishing feature of California is, however, its unexampled mineral wealth. The first discoveries of gold were made in 1848, when \$10,000,000 were taken from the mines, increasing to \$40,000,000 in 1849, and upwards of \$65,000,000 in 1853. No returns are made of the quantity taken from the mines, and the mint records are the only official data existing upon the product for any portion of the Pacific coast. Various estimates have been made by mining engineers, bankers, and other intelligent and practical business men in San Francisco, and elsewhere in California, as to the total product of that State since 1848. These estimates vary from eight hundred millions to one billion. From the commencement of 1849 to the close of 1866, upward of seven hundred and eighty-five millions have been manifested at San Francisco for exportation, all of which, with the exception of sixty-five millions, appears to have been the product of California. How large a portion of gold found its way out of the State without being manifested for exportation, is, of course, a matter of conjecture, different authorities estimating it from one hundred to three hundred millions. But either estimate is sufficient to furnish an idea of the immensity of the mineral wealth of the State. Silver mines in the State are comparatively inconsiderable, yet quantities of that metal are annually obtained by separating it from gold, with which it is, in small portions, generally united when taken from the mines. The quicksilver mines of California are among the most valuable, and have, since their discovery, materially contributed to the prosperity of the mining interests, not only of California and the adjoining States, but also of Mexico and South America. All the useful metals, such as iron, lead, copper, tin, and zinc, exist in this

region. Coal has been discovered in different localities, and marble, gypsum, and valuable building stone, are abundant. Some of the rarer and more valuable minerals, as the agate, topaz, cornelian, amethyst, and, in some instances, the diamond, have been found." *

It is stated that between the years 1849 and 1864, the total amount of treasure exported from California through the Custom House, was valued at \$695,684,879, and that the amount taken from the State, without being manifested at the Custom House, was about \$150,000,000, making the total yield of the State during that period nearly \$850,000,000.

CLIMATE.

"The climate of California is too much varied to be considered as a whole. It might be regarded almost as a heterogeneous mixture of the tropical and the arctic. From the capital city (Sacramento), under the noonday sun of the summer solstice, with a temperature of from 90° to 100°, exceeding the extreme summer heat of the Atlantic States, you will see the snows glistening on the Sierras at no great distance. And by taking the cars on the trans-continental railroad, a few hours travel will transport you to an arctic landscape. On the other hand, embarking on the steamer for San Francisco, at two o'clock in the afternoon, and travelling in the opposite direction, before night you are shivering in the cold sea-breeze which sweeps up the bay. It is not necessary to journey so far in order to experience the same transition. You have only to cross any of the mountain walls which separate the ocean and bay from the interior, and which dam out the cold ocean atmosphere. There are essentially two climates in California, the land climate and the sea climate. The latter derives its low temperature from the ocean, the water of which, along the coast, stands at from 52° to 54° all the year round. The evenness of the ocean temperature is owing to a steady current from the north, which is accompanied also by winds in the same direction during the entire summer season, or rather from April to October, inclusive. Almost daily, during this period, a deluge of cold, damp air, of the same temperature as the ocean over which it has passed, is poured upon the land. It is mostly laden with mist, in dense clouds, which it deposits at the foot-hills, and on the slopes of the highlands, or carries a short distance into the interior, wherever there is a break in the

* Report of the General Land-Office.

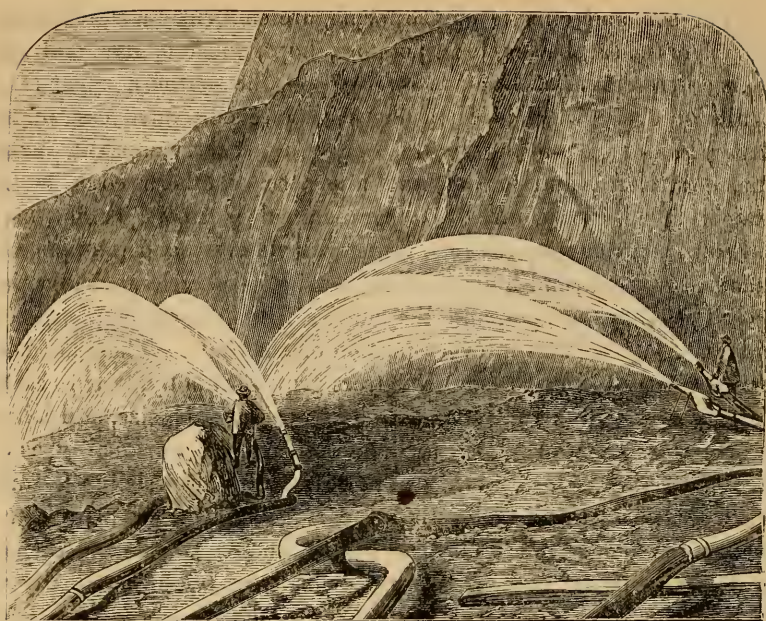
land wall. The land climate is as nearly as possible the opposite in every respect. In summer and autumn it is hot and dry. It undergoes various modifications from the configuration of the surface of the earth. Even the mountains, which retain the snow to a late period, present a high temperature in the middle of the day; and the presence of snow on their summits, in June, is owing to the great mass which has accumulated on them, rather than to cold weather. A large district of territory lies between the jurisdiction of the two climates, and subject to their joint influence. It is composed chiefly of valleys surrounding the bay of San Francisco, and penetrating into the interior in every direction. There is no climate in the world more delightful than these valleys enjoy, and no territory more productive. Whilst the ocean prevents the contiguous land from being scorched in summer, it also prevents it from being frozen in winter. Hence, ice and snow are not common in the ocean climate. The difference in temperature is comparatively slight between summer and winter. . . . The absence of warm weather in the summer months is characteristic of the coast climate, and strikes a stranger forcibly. The most ordinary programme of this climate for the year is as follows, beginning with the rainy season: The first decided rains are in November or December, when the country, after having been parched with drought, puts on the garb of spring. In January, the rains abate and vegetation advances slowly, with occasional slight frosts. February is spring-like, with but little rain. March and April are pleasant and showery, with an occasional hot day. In May the sea-breeze begins, but does not give much annoyance. In June, just as warm weather is about to set in, the sea-breeze comes daily, and keeps down the temperature. It continues through July and August, occasionally holding up for a day or two, and permitting the sun to heat the air to the sweating point. In September, the sea-wind moderates, and there is a slight taste of summer, which is prolonged into the next month. The pleasant weather often lingers in the lap of winter, and is interrupted only by the rains of November or December." *

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

The soil of the valleys is fertile, and produces liberal crops. In the districts where water is scarce it does not yield so well. The mountain lands are generally poor and unfit for cultivation.

* The Natural Wealth of California. By T. F. Cronise.

“The soil and climate of California, are eminently adapted to the growth of wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, hops, tobacco, hay, and sorghum; in certain localities, to corn, cotton, the southern sugar-cane, to almost every variety of garden vegetables cultivated east of the Rocky Mountains; to the apple, pear, plum, cherry, apricot, nectarine, quince, fig, and grape; and along the southern coast, to the orange, lemon, citron, olive, pomegranate, aloe, filbert, walnut, hard and soft-shell almond, currants, prunes, pine-apples, and the plantain, banana, cocoa-nut, and indigo. Strawberries, raspberries, blackberries, gooseberries, figs, grapes, and the hardier fruits, as the apple, peach, and pear, succeed well in every portion of the State. There are very few parts of the world where fruit-trees grow so rapidly, bear so early, so regularly, so abundantly, and produce fruit of such size, and where so great a variety can be produced, and of such superior quality, as on the southern coast of California. The pear is more especially the fruit-tree of California. It thrives in all parts of the State; neither tree nor fruit is subject to any form of disease, the fruit being everywhere of delicious flavor and large size. Some trees produce annually 40 bushels of pears. The varied climate on the Pacific, its freedom from frosts, severe cold, and furious storms, give it special advantages as a fruit-growing region; and although the trees grow more rapidly and bear much earlier than on the Atlantic, they are not subject to early decay. The fruit-trees of the missions, many of them 30 and 40 years old, are still in excellent condition, and full bearing, not having failed at any season during the past 20 years to produce good crops. Experience has established the fact, that the climate and soil of California are equal to any in the world in their adaptation to grape culture and the manufacture of wine. The yield of the grape has been larger, its freedom from disease greater, than in the most celebrated European vineyards. Three hundred varieties have been already successfully cultivated, including the choice foreign wine-producing grapes; and so diversified are the soil and climate that all wines can be produced here, and even superior in quality to the imported. The vine in California is not subject to the oidium or grape disease, frequently so destructive in other countries, nor is it liable to mildew. The vineyards of the State seldom, or never, yield less than 1000 pounds of grapes per acre, and even 20,000 pounds have been produced. The crops are regular every year, and as there are neither severe frosts, nor hail, rain, nor thunder-storms, from the budding of the vines until the grape is gathered, they are not liable to



HYDRAULIC MINING.

the accidents and drawbacks attending them in other places. In Europe, the vine is trained with a stock four feet high, and supported by a pole put up every year to which the vine is fastened. In California it stands alone, the labor thus far being nothing compared with that bestowed upon the best European vineyards. The number of vines already set, all of which will be in full bearing in three years, is estimated at nearly thirty millions. In 1863, the total number planted in vineyards, in the State, was nearly three and a half millions, showing an increase of 25,000,000 in four years. Hock, champagne, port and claret, constitute the varieties of wine already exported. No doubt is entertained that when the California wine-makers have had the necessary experience, and their wines have attained sufficient age, they will take rank with the very best, and that its manufacture on the Pacific coast is destined to become of vast importance, while series of vineyards, stretching from San Diego to Mount Shasta, will within another quarter of a century add not only beauty, but substantial wealth to the State. Among the fruits cultivated on the southern coast during the present year, have been the orange, lemon, fig, lime, the English walnut, almond, olive, apricot, and nectarine, numbering

in the aggregate between 400,000 and 500,000 trees, in a greater or less state of maturity. The cultivation of these and other fruits is rapidly extending in California with marked success." *

In 1870, there were about 2,500,000 acres of improved or cultivated land in the State. In the same year, the returns were as follows :

Bushels of wheat,	21,500,000
" barley,	8,000,000
" oats,	1,200,000
" rye,	16,000
" Indian corn,	1,000,000
" buckwheat,	10,000
" peas and beans,	214,000
" peanuts,	78,000
" Irish potatoes,	1,400,000
Tons of hay,	350,000
Pounds of hops,	570,000
" butter,	5,000,000
" cheese,	3,000,000
Gallons of wine,	4,000,000
" brandy,	300,000
Value of agricultural products,	\$89,000,000
Number of horses,	209,000
" asses and mules,	24,000
" cattle,	500,000
" sheep,	2,200,000
" swine,	412,000
Pounds of wool (estimated),	5,000,000

Stock-raising forms an important part of the industry of California, the climate being exceedingly favorable to it. Large numbers of horses, mules, oxen, beef-cattle, cows and sheep, are raised in the interior.

COMMERCE.

The City of San Francisco is the only port of any consequence in the State, but its situation is such as to render it one of the most important places in the world. It is the great centre of the growing commerce of the Pacific Ocean, and occupies the same commercial position on the western coast of the Republic that New York does on the Eastern. The following statement will show the proportions which its commerce has assumed :

"TRADE AND COMMERCE OF SAN FRANCISCO, for the first six

* The Natural Wealth of California. By T. F. Cronise.

months of 1868 :—Imports from foreign countries, \$8,000,000 gold ; from the Atlantic States, \$22,457,000, currency ; an increase of \$8,000,000 over the same period last year. The exports were—merchandise, \$11,000,000 ; coin, \$20,000,000 ; total, \$31,000,000 gold. The duties on imports amounted to \$4,028,522, and the receipts of internal revenue, \$3,000,000. During these six months, 1550 vessels arrived, bringing 500,000 tons of freight. The arrivals of passengers by sea were 32,186 ; departures, 11,367 ; net gain, 20,819. Of the \$5,448,000 of merchandise shipped the first quarter of 1868, \$4,316,000 was for some 50 articles of California produce, the principal items of which were as follows : wheat, \$2,452,000 ; flour, \$836,000 ; barley, \$37,000 ; beans, \$13,000 ; potatoes, \$9000 ; borax, \$10,000 ; quicksilver, \$387,000 ; ores, \$78,000 ; hides and skins, \$116,000 ; wool, \$186,000 ; leather, \$41,000 ; wine, \$42,000 ; brandy, \$9000 ; and bread, \$12,000. The gold deposits at the San Francisco Branch Mint during the first three months of 1868, amounted to 60,000 ounces, and the coinage to \$1,312,000. The total exports of treasure for the first quarter of the past three years have been as follows : 1866, \$9,532,544 ; 1867, \$9,825,304 ; 1868, \$10,540,415. The exports of merchandise for 1867 were \$22,465,903 ; and of treasure, \$41,676,722.16. About \$6,000,000 was shipped east by the United States sub-treasurer, making the total, \$47,676,292, and the aggregate of treasure and merchandise, \$70,142,195. The total amount of treasure exported from 1849 to 1868, was \$826,873,738.11.” *

In 1869, the imports of the State were valued at \$51,604,000, \$36,104,000 being from the Atlantic ports of the Union, and \$15,500,000 from foreign countries. The exports for the same period, exclusive of treasure, were upwards of \$23,000,000. The arrivals of vessels at San Francisco during 1869 were as follows : From Atlantic ports of the United States, 146 ; from foreign ports, 3524 ; from Pacific ports of the United States, 2904.

MANUFACTURES.

California is making rapid progress in manufactures. In 1870 there were 3984 establishments in the State, employing a capital of \$39,728,202, and producing goods to the amount of \$66,594,556 annually. The principal products were valued as follows

* American Year Book, vol. i. p. 293.

Lumber,	\$6,279,914
Flour,	9,036,386
Boots and shoes,	2,214,807
Machinery,	3,814,817
Liquors,	3,332,934
Woollen goods,	1,102,754

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

In 1868, there were 321 miles of completed railroads in the State, constructed at a cost of \$24,200,000. The Pacific Railway, now in operation, extends from Sacramento City eastward into Nevada, with connecting lines from Sacramento to San Francisco and other points. The railroad interest of the State is rapidly advancing, and will soon be equal to its necessities. In 1872, there were 1013 miles of completed railroads in the State.

In 1865, there were in California 491 miles of turnpike, 62 toll bridges, and 78 ferries. The principal rivers are navigated by steamers, and stage routes extend through the most important parts of the State, not otherwise connected.

EDUCATION.

California has been very energetic in the cause of education. The school system of the State is under the supervision of a Superintendent of Public Instruction, who is elected by the people for four years. He is the executive officer of the State Board of Education, which consists of the Governor, the Superintendent of Public Instruction, the principal of the State Normal School, the Superintendents of schools in San Francisco, and in Sacramento, Santa Clara, and San Joaquin counties, and two professional teachers holding State diplomas. The counties are under the supervision of County Superintendents, elected for two years. Each school district is managed by a Board of Directors, elected by the people. Certificates of competency for terms varying from the lifetime of the holder to one year, are granted by the State, City, and County Boards of Examiners.

There is a State Normal School in successful operation. There are six colleges in California. The State University is located at Oakland. It was established in 1855, and is liberally endowed.

The permanent school fund amounts to about \$800,000, and yields an income of over \$50,000 per annum. In 1867, the total amount expended by the State for educational purposes was \$1,168,583.

In 1870, there were 1342 public schools in the State, conducted by 1883 teachers, and attended by 75,527 pupils.

The public schools of San Francisco are distinct from those of the State, but are included in the above statement.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The *State Prison* is located at San Quentin. It is well conducted, but is in need of enlarged accommodations. In 1867, there were 692 convicts confined here.

The *Insane Asylum of California* is at Stockton. It was opened in 1851. In October, 1867, it contained 769 patients.

The *California Institution for the Deaf, Dumb and Blind* is at San Francisco. It was opened in 1866, and in October, 1867, contained 48 pupils.

The *State Reform School* is at Marysville, and is in successful operation.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, there were 532 churches in California. The value of church property was \$7,404,235. The State contains large numbers of Chinese settlers, who are Pagans.

LIBRARIES AND NEWSPAPERS.

The libraries of California (other than private collections) contain about 200,000 volumes, more or less.

In 1870, there were published in the State, 197 newspapers, and 4 magazines, with an aggregate annual circulation of 47,472,756 copies. Of these, 141 were political (28 being dailies), 14 religious, 18 literary and miscellaneous.

FINANCES.

In November, 1870, the public debt of the State was about \$7,000,000. The receipts of the Treasury for the fiscal year ending June 30th, 1870, were \$3,508,164, and the expenditures for the same period, \$3,814,037.

All financial transactions in this State are in coin, or its equivalent.

GOVERNMENT.

Every male citizen of the United States, and every white male citizen of Mexico, who has become a citizen of the United States according to the terms of the treaty of Queretaro (May 20th, 1848),

who is 21 years old, and has resided in the State six months and in the county thirty days, is entitled to vote at the elections.

The Government is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary, Treasurer, Comptroller, and Attorney-General, and a Legislature consisting of a Senate (of 40 members), and a House of Representatives (of 80 members), all chosen by the people. The State officers and Senators are elected for four years, and Representatives for two years. One-half of the Senators retire biennially. The general election is held in September, and the Legislature meets biennially in December.

The judicial power of the State is vested in a Supreme Court, District Courts, County Courts, and in Justices of the Peace. All judges are elected by the people. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and four Associate Justices, elected for 10 years. Judges of the District Courts serve 6 years, and those of the County Courts 4 years.

The seat of Government is established at Sacramento.

The State is divided into 50 counties.

HISTORY.

The term *California* is said by some writers to be derived from two Spanish words, *Caliente fornalla*, or *horno*, and to mean simply "a hot furnace." Other writers question this derivation. The Spaniards divided the country into two portions—Old California, which was then, as now, merely the Peninsula; and Upper, or New California, which included the present States of California and Nevada, and the greater part of New Mexico.

"California was discovered in 1548, by Cabrillo, a Spanish navigator. In 1758, Sir Francis Drake visited its northern coast, and named the country New Albion. The original settlements in California were mission establishments, founded by Catholic priests for the conversion of the natives. In 1769, the mission of San Diego was founded by Padre Junipero Serra.

"The mission establishments were made of adobe, or sun-burnt bricks, and contained commodious habitations for the priests, store-houses, offices, mechanic shops, granaries, horse and cattle pens, and apartments for the instruction of Indian youth. Around and attached to each, were, varying in different missions, from a few hundred to several thousand Indians, who generally resided in conical-shaped huts in the vicinity, their place of dwelling being generally called the

rancheria. Attached to each mission were a few soldiers, for protection against hostilities from the Indians.

“The missions extended their possessions from one extreme of the territory to that of the other, and bounded the limits of one mission by that of the next, and so on. Though they did not require so much land for agriculture, and the maintenance of their stock, they appropriated the whole; always strongly opposing any individual who might wish to settle on any land between them. All the missions were under the charge of the priests of the order of San Francisco. Each mission was under one of the fathers, who had despotic authority. The general products of the missions were large cattle, sheep, horses, Indian corn, beans and peas. Those in the southern part of California, produced also the grape and olive in abundance. The most lucrative product was the large cattle, their hides and tallow affording an active commerce with foreign vessels, and being, indeed, the main support of the inhabitants of the territory. From 1800 to 1830 the missions were in the height of their prosperity. Then, each mission was a little principality, with its hundred thousand acres and its twenty thousand head of cattle. All the Indian population, except the ‘Gentiles’ of the mountains, were the subjects of the padres, cultivating for them their broad lands, and reverencing them with devout faith. The wealth and power in possession of the missions, excited the jealousy of the Mexican authorities. In 1833, the Government commenced a series of decrees, which eventually ruined them. In 1845, the obliteration of the missions was completed by their sale at auction, and otherwise.

“Aside from the missions, in California, the inhabitants were nearly all gathered in the *presidios*, or forts, and in the villages, called ‘*Los Pueblos*.’ The *presidios*, or fortresses, were occupied by a few troops under the command of a military prefect or governor. The Padre President, or Bishop, was the supreme civil, military and religious ruler of the province. There were four *presidios* in California, each of which had under its protection several missions. They were respectively, San Diego, Santa Barbara, Monterey, and San Francisco. Within four or five leagues of the *presidios*, were certain farms, called *ranchios*, which were assigned for the use of the garrisons, and as depositories of the cattle and grain which were furnished as taxes from the missions. *Los Pueblos*, or towns, grew up near the missions. Their first inhabitants consisted of retired soldiers and attachés of the army, many of whom married Indian women. Of the villages of this

description, there were but three, viz: Los Angeles, San José, and Branciforte. In later times, the American emigrants established one on the Bay of San Francisco, called Yerba Buena, *i. e.*, good herb, which became the nucleus of the flourishing city of San Francisco. Another was established by Captain Sutter, on the Sacramento, called New Helvetia. The larger pueblos were under the government of an alcalde, or judge, in connection with other municipal officers.

"The policy of the Catholic priests, who held absolute sway in California until 1833, was to discourage emigration. Hence, up to about the year 1840, the villages named comprised all in California, independent of those at the missions; and at that time, the free whites and half-breed inhabitants in California numbered less than 6000 souls. The emigration from the United States first commenced in 1838; this had so increased from year to year, that, in 1846, Colonel Fremont had but little difficulty in calling to his aid some five hundred fighting men. Some few resided in the towns, but a majority were upon the Sacramento, where they had immense droves of cattle and horses, and fine farms, in the working of which they were aided by the Indians. They were eminently an enterprising and courageous body of people, as none other at that time would brave the perils of an overland journey across the mountains. In the ensuing hostilities they rendered important services. At that period, the trade carried on at the different towns was quite extensive, and all kinds of dry goods, groceries and hardware, owing to the heavy duties, ranged about 500 per cent. above the prices in the United States. Mechanics and ordinary hands received from two to five dollars per day. The commerce was quite extensive, 15 or 20 vessels not unfrequently being seen in the various ports at the same time. Most of the merchant vessels were from the United States, which arrived in the spring, and engaged in the coasting trade until about the beginning of winter, when they departed with cargoes of hides, tallow, or furs, which had been collected during the previous year. Whale ships also touched at the port for supplies and to trade, and vessels from various parts of Europe, the Sandwich Islands, the Russian settlements, and China."

The Mexican revolution of 1822 overthrew the Spanish power in California, and made it a province of Mexico. The Government of that country directed its efforts to the task of secularizing the province, and finally stripped the fathers of their possessions and power. Severe measures were also practised towards the laity, and several efforts were made by the Californians to throw off the Mexican yoke, and establish

their independence. They were finally quieted, and emigrants began to come out to the territory in great numbers. During the years 1843, 1844, 1845, and 1846, the emigration was especially large, a very great proportion of the new settlers coming from the United States.

Early in 1846, a quarrel broke out between the authorities and the American settlers. The Mexican commander undertook to expel the American settlers, who at once flew to arms, under the lead of Colonel John C. Fremont. By a series of bold and rapid movements the Americans made themselves masters of the greater part of the country, and proclaimed their independence of Mexico. At this juncture an American squadron, under Commodore Stockton, arrived on the coast with news of the declaration of war between the United States and Mexico. Several conflicts now occurred between the Americans and the Mexicans, the result being generally in favor of the former, and at the close of the war the greater part of the territory was held by the United States. By the terms of the treaty of peace, Mexico ceded the territory of California to the United States for the sum of \$15,000,000. The white population was now about 15,000.

In February, 1848, gold was discovered on the farm of Colonel Sutter, in Coloma county, and it was soon found that the precious metal was widely distributed all over the State. An enormous emigration at once set in from all parts of North and South America, from Europe, and from China. In about a year, the population of the territory was nearly a quarter of a million. A more reckless, daring, dangerous body of men never collected in any part of the world. An organized government became a necessity.

General Riley, the military governor of the territory, summoned a convention to meet at Monterey, on the 1st of September, 1849. This convention adopted a Constitution, which was ratified by the popular vote, and on the 9th of September, 1850, California was admitted into the Union as a sovereign State.

The first years of the new State were marked by excessive violence and disorder. The principal classes of the inhabitants were the miners and gamblers. Crime of all kinds increased with frightful rapidity. In San Francisco especially, neither life nor property was safe. The authorities were either in league with the criminals, or incompetent to the task of putting a stop to the outrages from which the community suffered; and in 1855 the citizens took the law into their own hands, organized a "vigilance committee," and by a rigorous adminis-

tration of justice brought the city to a condition of peace and order. Since then it has never flagged in its career of prosperity.

The growth of the State has been unprecedentedly rapid, and is now not far behind the most prosperous Atlantic communities. The Pacific Railroad is doing much to build it up, and by bringing it nearer, in point of time, to the East, will enable it to acquire with still greater facility those refining and ennobling elements of civilization, without which its material prosperity would be comparatively worthless.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the most important places in the State are, San Francisco, San José, Marysville, Stockton, Nevada, Grass Valley, Petaluma, Yreka, Placerville, and Oakland.

SACRAMENTO,

The capital and second city of the State, is situated in the county of the same name, on the left bank of the Sacramento River, a short distance below the mouth of the American River, 75 miles in an air line northeast of San Francisco, and 120 miles by the river from that city. Latitude $38^{\circ} 34' N.$, longitude $121^{\circ} 26' W.$ The city lies in a level plain, and is regularly laid out. It has been raised ten feet above its original level, in order to protect it against the floods of the two rivers, and for its further security an artificial wall has been built around the American River, 4 feet above high water in the Sacramento; the work cost \$250,000. Sacramento has suffered severely from freshets, the most disastrous being that of 1861-62, in which large amounts of property were destroyed.

The street next to the river is called Front Street, the next Second Street, and so on; the streets crossing these at right angles are named from the letters of the Alphabet. The numbered streets run north and south. The city is about 3 miles in length, and is divided into four wards. The principal business houses lie within the portion bounded by Fifth, Sixth, H, and L streets. In the business portion, the houses are built principally of brick. The dwellings are mostly of wood, and many are provided with handsome grounds.

The principal building is the new *Capitol*, which promises to be when completed the most magnificent edifice in the West, and one of the finest in the Union. *The Court House*, now used as a *State House*, is a handsome building. *The State Agricultural Pavilion*,

erected by the citizens of Sacramento for the annual fairs of the State Agricultural Society, is one of the finest buildings in California.

The benevolent and charitable institutions embrace several noble societies for doing good. Among these are the *County Hospital*, and the *Howard Society*.

The schools of the city are excellent. There are about 11 public schools, and about 8 or 10 private schools, including the *Sacramento College* and 3 Female Seminaries. There are 3 public libraries in the city, containing nearly 40,000 volumes. The State Library contains over 20,000 volumes. Three daily newspapers are published here. The city contains 12 or 13 churches, and is lighted with gas, and is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870, the population was 16,283.

Sacramento is the largest inland city of California, and is admirably situated for trade. It can be reached by steamers and sailing vessels throughout the entire year. The Sacramento and its tributary the Feather River are navigable for small steamers above the city for a considerable distance. Sacramento, in consequence of its position, has become the point of supply for the great mining region of the State. It is connected with San Francisco by railway, and is the western terminus of the Central Pacific Railway, the eastern terminus of that road being near Salt Lake City, in Utah Territory. Railways to several parts of the State are under construction.

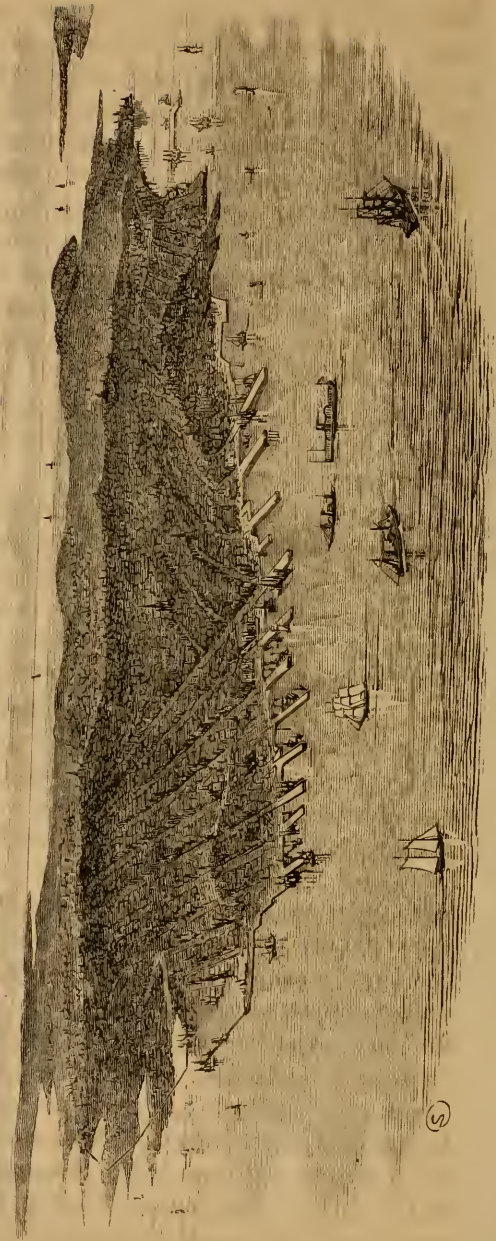
Sacramento was founded in the Spring of 1849, the central part of the town being one mile below Sutter's Fort. It was originally called Nueva Helvetia.

SAN FRANCISCO,

The metropolis of the State, is situated on the west shore of the bay of the same name, in the county of San Francisco, 75 miles in an air line southwest of Sacramento, and 2500 miles in an air line from Richmond, Va., which is in about the same latitude. Latitude $37^{\circ} 47' 35''$ N., longitude $122^{\circ} 26' 15''$ W.

The city is located in a plain which slopes gently towards the bay, and is bounded by a number of hills at the back. The soil is sandy, and to the north are numerous sand-hills. The city is regularly laid off, the streets crossing each other at right angles. Montgomery street is the leading thoroughfare, and presents a handsome and attractive spectacle. California street is devoted to banking, brokerage, and insurance offices. On Stockton and Dupont streets, in the





SAN FRANCISCO.

southern part of the city, are to be found many handsome residences. The first buildings of San Francisco were entirely of wood, but since the destructive fires that have several times laid the greater part of the city in ashes, brick and iron have been extensively used, and the more thickly settled portions are now substantially built. Many of the business houses are splendid fire proof structures. The city was originally built around a semi-circular bay, its limits, Clark's Point, on the north, and Rincon Point, on the south, being but a mile apart. This portion is now built up with heavy business houses, and the shore is lined with wharves supported upon piles driven into the river. Market street, a broad avenue, running southwest from the bay, divides the old and new portions of the city. San Francisco, like all the Pacific cities, presents an appearance of incompleteness, though it is rapidly improving in this respect, and is already beginning to wear a metropolitan air. Mr. Samuel Bowles, thus writes of the city of to-day :

“This is a very ridiculous and repulsive town, in some aspects, and a very fascinating and commendable one, in others, both materially and morally, physically and æsthetically. Its youth is its apology in one regard, its wonder and its merit on the other. The location must have been chosen for its water, and not its land privileges. It is set upon the inside of a range of the purest sand-hills, six or seven miles wide, blown up from the ocean, and still blowing up, between it and the bay. The main business streets are in the hollows, or on the flat land, made by pulling down the sand from the hills. But go out of these in any direction, and you are confronted by steep hills. Some of these are cut through, or being cut through ; others are scaled, to make room for the spread of the town. The happy thought of winding the streets about their sides, which would have made a very picturesque and certainly get-around-able town, came too late. If but the early San Franciscans had thought of Boston, and followed the cow-paths, what a unique, nice town they would have made of this ! Only I fear there never was even an astray cow on these virgin sand-hills, as innocent of verdure as a babe of sorrow or vice. The modern American straight line style was the order, no matter what was in front ; and the result is that going about San Francisco is all collar and breeching work for man and beast. The consequence is, also, there are only two or three streets that you can think of driving out of town on. The only way to get up and down the others with a horse, is to go zig-zag from one side to the other. Some of the principal residence streets

are after this fashion, however ; I found our friend, Rev. Horatio Stebbins, of the Unitarian Church, here, holding on by main strength to a side hill that runs up at an angle of something like thirty degrees. And so they run up and down, and the city is straggling loosely over these hills for several miles in all directions. Some of the highest of the knobs are being cut down, and this leaves the early houses,—that is, those built four or five years ago,—away up one hundred feet or more in the air, and reached by long flights of steep steps.

“Wherever the hill-sides and tops are fastened with houses or pavements, or twice daily seduced with water, there the foundations are measurably secure, and the deed of the purchaser means something ; but all elsewhere, all the open lots and unpaved paths are still undergoing the changing and creative process. The daily winds swoop up the soil in one place, and deposit it in another in great masses, like drifts of snow. You will often find a suburban street blocked up with fresh sand ; and the owner of vacant lots needs certainly to pay them daily visits in order to swear to title ; and the chance is anyway that, between one noon and another, he and his neighbor will have changed properties to an indefinite depth. Incidental to all this, of course, are clouds of sand and dust through all the residence and open parts of the city, making large market for soap and clothes-brushes, and putting neat housekeepers quite in despair for their furniture. Naturally enough, there is a looseness on the subject of cleanliness that would shock your old-fashioned New England housewives.

“But then, as compensation, the winds give health,—keeping the town fresh and clean ; and the hills offer wide visions of bay and river, and islands and sister hills,—away out and on with varying life of shipping, and manufactures, and agriculture ; and, hanging over all, a sky of azure with broad horizons. Oceanward is Lone Mountain Cemetery, covering one of the hills with its scrawny, low-running, live oak shrub tree, and its white monuments, conspicuous among which are the erections to those martyrs to both western and eastern civilization and progress,—Broderick, the mechanic and senator, James King of William, the editor, and Baker, the soldier. Here is the old mission quarter, there the soldiers’ camp, yonder, by the water, the bristling fort, again the conspicuous and generous Orphan Asylum, monument of the tenderness and devotion of the women of the city, and to the left of that still, the two Jewish Cemeteries, each with its

appropriate and tasteful burial chapel. No other American city holds in its very centre such sweeping views of itself and its neighborhood.

"Then the little yards around the dwellings of the prosperous, even of those of moderate means, are made rich with all the verdure of a green-house, with only the cost of daily watering. The most delicate of evergreens; roses of every grade and hue; fuchsias vigorous and high as lilac bushes; nasturtiums sweeping over fences and up house walls; flowering vines of delicate quality, unknown in the East; geraniums and salvias, pansies and daisies, and all the kindred summer flowers of New York and New England, grow and blossom under these skies, throughout the whole year,—the same in December and January as in June and August,—with a richness and a profusion that are rarely attained by any out-door culture in the East. The public aqueducts furnish water, though at considerable expense, and pipes convey and spread it in fine spray all over yard and garden. The result is, every man's door-yard in the city is like an eastern conservatory; and little humble cottages smile out of this city of sand-hills and dust, as green and as yellow, and as red and as purple, as gayest of garden can make them. There is no aristocracy of flowers here; they greet you everywhere in greatest profusion, and are tender solace to home-sick heart, and cheap and sweet tonic to weary brain.

"Kindred contrasts force themselves upon the observant stranger, in the business and social life of the town. Some of the finest qualities are mingled with others that are both shabby and 'shoddy.' There is sharp, full development of all material powers and excellencies; wealth of practical quality and force; a recklessness and rioting with the elements of prosperity; much dash, a certain chivalric honor combined with carelessness of word, of integrity, of consequence; a sort of gambling, speculating, horse-jockeying morality,—born of the uncertainties of mining, its sudden heights, its equally surprising depths, and the eager haste to be rich,—that all require something of a re-casting of relationships, new standards, certainly new charities, in order to get the unaccustomed mind into a state of candor and justice. People who know they are smart in the East, and come out here thinking to find it easy wool-gathering, are generally apt to go home shorn. Wall street can teach Montgomery street nothing in the way of 'bulling' and 'bearing,' and the 'corners' made here require both quick and long breath to turn without faltering.

“Men of medioere quality are no better off here than in older cities and States. Ten or fifteen years of stern chase after fortune, among the mines and mountains, and against the new nature of this original country, has developed men here with a tougher and more various experience in all the temporalities of life, and a wider resource for fighting all sorts of ‘tigers,’ than you can easily find among the present generation in the Eastern States. Nearly all the men of means here to-day have held long and various struggle with fortune, failing once, twice or thrice, and making wide wreck, but buckling on the armor again and again, and trying the contest over and over. So it is throughout the State and the coast; I have hardly met an old emigrant of ’49 and ’50, who has not told me of vicissitudes of fortune, of personal trials, and hard work for bread and life, that, half-dreamed of before coming here, he would never have dared to encounter, and which no experience of persons in like position in life in the East can parallel.

“In consequence partly of all this training, and partly of the great interests and the wide regions to be dealt with, the men I find at the head of the great enterprises of this coast have great business power,—a wide practical reach, a boldness, a sagacity, a vim, that I do not believe can be matched anywhere in the world. London and New York and Boston can furnish men of more philosophies and theories,—men who have studied business as a science as well as practised it as a trade,—but here are the men of acuter intuitions, and more daring natures; who cannot tell you why they do so and so, but who will do it with a force that commands success. Such men have built up and direct the California Steam Navigation Company, that is to the waters of this State what the Oregon Company is to those of that, commanding the entire navigation, and furnishing most unexceptionable facilities for trade and travel; the California and Pioneer Stage Companies, that equally command the stage travel of the coast; the woollen mills of this city; the Wells & Fargo Express Company; the great machine shops of Pacific street; the Pacific Mail Steamship Company; and the great private banking houses, of which there are many and most prosperous. Much British capital is invested in banking here; not only in original houses, but through branches of leading bankers in London, India, and British Columbia. But chief of the banks is the Bank of California, with two millions of capital, divided into only forty shares of fifty thousand dollars each, and owned by fewer than that number of persons, who represent a total property of thirteen

millions (gold). This institution does about half the banking of the city, and its average cash movement every steamer day, in shipments of bullion and drafts, is five millions of dollars. It keeps the best commercial and financial writer of the coast in its employ, has agents in all the centres of productive wealth in the Pacific States, invests, directly or indirectly, in most of the leading enterprises of the State, has an eye out for the politics and religion of the country, and, to a very considerable extent, 'runs' California every way."

The principal buildings are the *City Hall*, fronting upon the Plaza or Portsmouth square; the *United States Custom House*, in which is located the Post Office; the *United States Marine Hospital*; the *United States District Court Building*; the *United States Mint*; the *Mercantile Library Building*; the *Masonic and Odd Fellows' Halls*. Some of these are elegant structures, and would do credit to any eastern city.

There are upwards of 50 church edifices in San Francisco. Some of these are very handsome, and are among the principal ornaments of the city.

There are 3 High Schools, 8 Grammar Schools, and 24 Primary Schools in San Francisco. The amount expended annually by the city for the free education of children averages about \$210,000. Some of the School buildings are among the finest in the country. The city also contains about 75 excellent and flourishing private schools. There are also several public libraries in the city; 46 newspapers and periodicals are published here: 9 are daily; 26 weekly; 3 tri-weekly; 2 semi-weekly; 7 monthly; and 2 semi-monthly. These include journals published in the French, Spanish, Italian and German languages.

The benevolent and charitable institutions are numerous, liberally supported, and well conducted. They embrace the *United States Marine Hospital*, the *State Institution for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind*, the *City and County Hospital*, several *Orphan Asylums*, and several societies for the relief of suffering and distress.

The principal cemeteries are Calvary and Lone Mountain Cemetery. The latter is very beautiful. The Cemetery of the Old Mission, a few miles from the city, is interesting, as is also the Mission itself. It was built in 1776, and is constructed of adobe in the old Spanish style.

The hotels of San Francisco are excellent, and two of these, the *Lick House* and *Occidental Hotel*, are among the finest and best managed houses in the Union. The principal houses are the *Grand Lick*, *Occidental*, *Russ*, *Cosmopolitan*, and *Continental*.

The places of amusement are numerous. There are 3 first-class theatres.

The distant points of the city are connected by a street railway. The city is lighted with gas, and is supplied with pure water from Mountain Lake, which lies about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles west of the corporate limits. It possesses an efficient police force, and a reliable and well managed fire department, consisting of hand and steam engines. It is governed by a Mayor and Council. In 1870 the population was 149,482, making it the tenth city of the Republic.

San Francisco contains a large population of Chinese. These number at present about 15,000, and inhabit a distinct quarter—the dirtiest and most disorderly—of the city. They are principally men, but few women of their own race being among them. A recent writer thus sketches the “Chinese Quarter:”

“We could hardly realize that we were still in the United States, the whole surroundings were so unfamiliar. Chests of tea covered with hieroglyphics, piles of curious shaped and colored garments, formed a fitting background for the noiseless movements of the attendants as they went about their work. The atmosphere was heavy with opium smoke, rising in curling clouds from the tiny pipes held by two impassive figures seated on either side of the little table, which held the inevitable lamp and the tiny transparent cups to be found in every Chinese domicile. Mr. Choy Chew, himself, a courteous, agreeable gentleman, seemed a vision, the creature of Dreamland, as he sat perched upon a high stool opposite our party. His smooth face, shaven head and pigtail, the dark blue color and curious fashioning of his broad cloth ‘blouse,’ and, above all, his restless, gleaming black eyes, were in marked contrast to the familiar appearance of the gentlemen of our party, with their bearded faces, closely cut hair, and American style of dress.

“It was hard to shake off the feeling that this was but a vision of Shadow-land. We looked out of the windows, but gained no help there, for the street was full of quickly moving figures, clad in the same odd attire, with their boat-shaped shoes, walking noiselessly up and down, intent on their own affairs. . . .

“At a few words—all tang and chang and yang, except those that were ski and chi—an oldish Chinaman handed to us, on a tea-box lid, some curious, dried, brown objects, not unlike black walnuts in appearance. Following Mr. Choy Chew’s example, and crushing them between our fingers, there developed an inner kernel, resembling a dried prune

in looks and taste. These we were informed were a species of Chinese fruit. Our host then wrote for us, on Chinese paper, his name and address in English and Chinese, using a camel's-hair brush and India ink, and writing (or painting would be a more applicable term) with as great rapidity as though the best Gillott pen and writing fluid were his implements.

"The evening previous to this visit, while prowling around Sacramento street, and watching the curious Celestials in their every-day life, our attention was attracted by a singular arrangement on a doorstep, and we stopped for a nearer view. Nine tiny lights were arranged after this fashion

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upon the two ends and in the middle of the door-stone. While pondering and commenting, the door suddenly opened, disclosing a Chinaman with a bowl containing ashes and fire in one hand, in the other a huge wisp of burning scented paper. This he waved over the tiny lights, performed some rapid *hocus pocus*, *bumped his head on the door-sill*, and vanished, the door closing with the same quiet celerity which marked its opening. The lights burned brighter, and save for that no token remained of this performance. We looked at each other more bewildered than before, and took up our line of progress in a dazed manner, mentally quering whether we had not been unconsciously dropped into some strange land, and not quite recovering our equanimity until some distance lay between us and the scene which so puzzled us.

"With this occurrence vividly before us, we queried of Mr. Choy Chew as to what it might mean. He told us that their people worship the moon; that once a year, when the moon is 'at its bigness and roundest,' they 'make holiday;' and that evening had been the fulness of the harvest moon; so their people had celebrated it, and the performance we had witnessed was a burning of incense in honor of pale Cynthia. We then inquired if strangers would be allowed to visit the Chinese temples, and were told they had no temples in America, but only miserable little 'joss-houses,' where we would find not much to interest. If, however, we would take the trouble to go, there was one up a court, just above Stockton street. And so we made our adieux, exchanging shakes of the hand with one after another who came forward smiling effusively, and departed to find the 'joss-house.' On the way we meet How Yang, an acquaintance made the day before, and under his guidance we proceeded to the court, into a

little house, up stairs to a back-room, entering through a small ante-room; and here we found 'Joss.' So far as we could learn, 'Joss' is a corruption of the Spanish 'Dios,' and stands as a generic term for gods. The worship we saw, and that which is generally performed, seems to be of an appeasing nature. The evil spirits are those who are worshipped—those who will do harm if not conciliated by offerings and incense-burnings and genuflections. The room was a small one: an oldish and exceedingly dirty 'Chinee' (California vernacular) was clearing up generally, making the toilet of the exceedingly ugly and saturnine-looking idolship that sat in the centre of a long, low table covered with cloths stiff with quaint embroideries. A large china bowl, very similar to a mammoth punch bowl, was filled with ashes, in which were 'joss-sticks' burning slowly, and filling the air with their heavy, incense-like perfume. Round the room, in every possible place, hung strips of paper, of that red color so well known to us all on the outside of packs of fire-crackers, and covered with apparently identical characters. These are the *prayers*, written out and pinned up in quantities. In one corner stood an uncouth representation of a tiger, the jaws widely distended and stuffed full of comestibles; rats and raw meat seeming to hold the chief place. This is to provide against probable hunger on the part of Mr. Tiger, and possible devouring of humanity. But for the all-pervading perfumed smoke from the burning 'joss-sticks,' the air of the room would have been unbearable. Outside the door, in the little ante-room, was another bowl, also stuck full of burning sticks.

"We were told that at certain seasons this room is filled to overflowing with the articles of food brought and offered to their idols.

"All the intelligent Chinamen we met deprecated our intention of going to see the 'joss-house,' saying it was not worth while; that they had no place of worship in this country; that what were here were only temporary substitutes. The men do not seem reverent. How Yang, we noticed, looked round the place with even more carelessness than we did, and seemed to feel utterly indifferent, and certainly was or pretended to be entirely ignorant as to the name and title of the presiding deity, and could not or would not answer any of our numerous questions.

"We have since seen it stated that the women among the Chinese, as in most communities, are the devout worshippers; and we have also heard that they are impelled to extra exertion in the matter by the fond belief that in the future condition the most religious will be

elevated from feminine inferiority to masculine superiority—a belief, which, as the Chinese have very little respect for women, and treat them with neglect and contumely, gives great comfort—a comfort that possibly some of our strong-minded sisters might like to share, for, doubtless, it would afford huge satisfaction to those who struggle and strive after unattainable masculine prerogatives here to know that in a future state these will all be theirs of right and title.

“We inquired closely of various residents of San Francisco who employ ‘Chinee’ servants as to their qualifications and the satisfaction they give. In all cases the answers were favorable. They are docile, quick, honest, and *reliable*. O Biddy-ridden housekeepers! can it be that a day of deliverance is dawning? Did ever Norah or Biddy prove at once quick to learn and docile, honest and thoroughly reliable? Chinamen, however, are not remarkably *cleanly*, though they can be made so, but of themselves do not care for cleanliness. Neither godliness nor its next virtue has had any power over them. A friend told us that for delicious cooking she would put a Chinese cook foremost. One peculiarity is, that owing to the national low estimate of women, it promotes comfort to have many of the necessary orders promulgated directly from the gentleman of the household. A rather amusing incident came to our notice, illustrative of the difference it makes how one looks at a thing. One lady remarked, in a most emphatic way, that one thing she would *not* permit, and that was to allow her Chinese cook to wear his queue *down his back* while about her premises. She had, after much difficulty, succeeded in obliging ‘John’ to keep his queue bound around his head, and was triumphant. Another lady, *à propos* to the same subject, remarked that there was *one* thing persons employing Chinese servants ought to be most particular about: that it was a sign of intense disrespect and contempt when a Chinaman wore his pig-tail wrapped round his head, and *never* should this be allowed by a mistress! ‘Where ignorance is bliss,’ probably applied in the first case; but the lady’s self-gratulation on her success was extremely comical to us when we had the ‘cue’ to the arrangement of the queue.

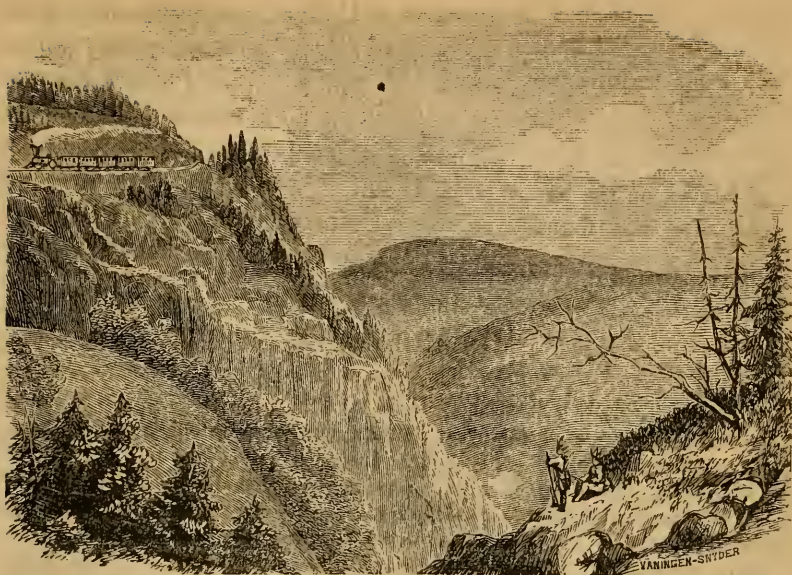
“In laundry-work these people excel; we watched them quite frequently, and saw that in this worrisome portion of domestic labor they were most competent. They do most of the washing and ironing for San Francisco—do them cheaply (according to California rates) and well. To be sure their mode of sprinkling is *unique*, and not quite pleasant to think about, but it is thoroughly successful as to

results. We stopped one morning at Ho Sun's establishment. With the uniform good humor that greeted all our prying, the busy ironers looked up, nodded, and smiled, 'How do?' 'Walk in,' and went on assiduously with the piece in hand, evidently appreciating that we were 'lookers on in Vienna.' A large bowl of water stood beside the iron; the ironer stooped his face down into it, taking up a mouthful of water, and by the action of the tongue against the teeth, ejected it in a fine spray like mist equally over the article to be sprinkled. Two mouthfuls thoroughly and uniformly dampened the piece, and then he commenced to iron.

"On Sundays this portion of the city is alive; the barber shops are crowded with customers waiting their turn to be freely shaven, and to have their queues rebraided. The gambling houses, whose name is legion, overflow, the dreary squeak of the so-called music resounds on every side. In many shops and workrooms labor is going on; shoe-making, cigar-rolling, and similar avocations are being pursued."

San Francisco being the principal city on the Pacific coast is one of the most important commercial centres on the coast. It is connected with Omaha, Nebraska, by the Pacific Railway, and by railway with the most important cities of the State. Lines of steamers ply between the city and the towns on the bay, and along the navigable rivers emptying into the bay. It has steamship communication with the principal ports on the Pacific coast, with New York, *via* Panama, and with Japan and China. It is the centre of a large and growing commerce with all parts of the world. The statistics for the first six months of the year 1868, and for 1869, having been already presented in the section relating to the commerce of California, may be passed by here. In the same place the reader will find the returns of the shipment of treasure from this place.

San Francisco was first settled in 1776, by the Spaniards, who built a mission and established a Presidio here. The place was called "Yerba Buena," or "good herb," from a plant of supposed medicinal virtue, which grew in great quantities in the neighborhood. In 1839, it was laid out as a town. In 1845, it contained 150 inhabitants. The attention of American settlers was drawn to it about this time, and by 1847, the population had increased to 500. The result of the war between the United States and Mexico made California an American Territory, and it was about this time that the town changed its name to San Francisco. In December, 1847, gold was discovered



CAPE HORN.

in California. The news was scattered over the civilized world the next spring, and emigrants began to pour in from every country. By the middle of 1849, the town contained a population of 5000, the larger portion being mere adventurers, who were of no permanent advantage to the place. In 1850, the city of San Francisco was incorporated. It has grown rapidly, and having passed successfully through the stormy days of its pioneer history, is now in the enjoyment of a solid prosperity which promises to make it one of the greatest cities of the world.

SAN JOSÉ,

In Santa Clara county, is the third city of the State. It lies in the lovely valley of Santa Clara, on the right bank of the Guadalupe River, about 8 miles above the head of San Francisco Bay, and about 50 miles south-southeast of San Francisco. It is the most beautiful place on the Pacific coast, and lies in the "garden district" of the State, and is the centre of a large trade. It is laid off regularly, and is well built. It contains some fine public buildings, and a number of elegant private residences. The climate is one of almost perpetual spring, and the valley is noted for its great beauty.

The city contains a handsome new *Court House*, the largest and

finest in the State, 7 churches, 3 newspaper offices, several public and private schools, including the female *College of Notre Dame*, and a good hotel. It is lighted with gas, and is supplied with water by means of artesian wells. It is governed by a Mayor and Council, and in 1870, contained a population of 9089. The port of San José is at Alviso, on the bay, 7 miles distant.

San José was founded in the early part of the present century. It was incorporated as a city in 1850, and was at one time the capital of California.

MISCELLANIES.

SAN FRANCISCO IN 1848-9.

In the early spring of this year (1848), occasional intelligence had been received of the finding of gold in large quantities among the foot hills of the Sierra Nevada. Small parcels of the precious metal had also been forwarded to San Francisco, while visitors from the mines, and some actual diggers arrived, to tell the wonders of the region and the golden gains of those engaged in exploring and working it. In consequence of such representations, the inhabitants began gradually, in bands and singly, to desert their previous occupations, and betake themselves to the American River and other auriferous parts of the great Sacramento Valley. Labor, from the deficiency of hands, rose rapidly in value, and soon all business and work, except the most urgent, was forced to be stopped. Seamen deserted from their ships in the bay, and soldiers from the barracks. Over all the country the excitement was the same. Neither threats, punishment, nor money could keep men to their most solemn engagements. Gold was the irresistible magnet that drew human souls to the place where it lay, rudely snapping asunder the feebler ties of affection and duty. Avarice and the overweening desire to be suddenly rich, from whence sprang the hope and moral certainty of being so, grew into a disease, and the infection spread on all sides, and led to a general migration of every class of the community to the golden quarters. The daily laborer, who had worked for the good and at the command of another, for one or two dollars a day, could not be restrained from flying to the happy spot where he could earn six or ten times the amount, and might possibly gain a hundred or even a thousand times the sum in one lucky day's chance. Then the life, at worst, promised to be one of continual adventure and excitement, and the miner was his own master. While this was the case with the common laborer, his employer, wanting his services, suddenly found his occupation at an end; while shopkeepers and the like, dependent on both, discovered themselves in the same predicament. The glowing tales of the successful miners all the while reached their ears, and threw their own steady and large gains comparatively in the shade. They therefore could do no better, in a pecuniary sense even, for themselves, than to hasten after their old servants, and share in their new labor and its extraordinary gains, or pack up their former business stock, and, travelling with it to the mines, open their new shops, and stores, and stalls, and dispose of their old articles to the fortunate diggers, at a rise of 500 or 1000 per cent.

In the month of May, it was computed that at least 150 people had left San Francisco, and every day since was adding to their number. Some were occasionally returning from the auriferous quarter; but they had little time to stop and expatiate upon what they had seen. They had hastily come back, as they had hastily gone away at first, leaving their household and business to waste and ruin, now to fasten more properly their houses, and remove goods, family and all, at once to the gold region. Their hurried movements, more even than the words they uttered, excited the curiosity and then the eager desire of others to accompany them. And so it was. Day after day the bay was covered with launches, filled with the inhabitants and their goods, hastening up the Sacramento. This state of matters soon came to a head; and master and man alike hurried to the *placeros*, leaving San Francisco, like a place where the plague reigns, forsaken by its old inhabitants, a melancholy solitude.

On the 29th of May, the *Californian* published a fly-sheet, apologizing for the future non-issue of the paper, until better days came, when they might expect to retain their servants for some amount of remuneration, which at present was impossible, as all, from the "subs" to the "devil," had indignantly rejected every offer, and gone off to the diggings. "The whole country," said the last editorial of the paper, "from San Francisco to Los Angeles, and from the sea shore to the base of the Sierra Nevada, resounds with the sordid cry of *gold! gold!! GOLD!!!*—while the field is left half planted, the house half built, and everything neglected but the manufacture of shovels and pick-axes, and the means of transportation to the spot where one man obtained \$128 worth of the *real stuff* in one day's washing, and the average for all concerned is *twenty dollars per diem*."

Within the first eight weeks after the "diggings" had been fairly known, \$250,000 had reached San Francisco in gold dust, and within the next eight weeks \$600,000 more. These sums were all to purchase, at any price, additional supplies for the mines. Coin grew scarce, and all that was in the country was insufficient to satisfy the increased wants of commerce in one town alone. Gold dust, therefore, soon became a circulating medium, and after some little demur at first, was readily received by all classes at \$16 an ounce. The authorities, however, would only accept it in payment of duties at \$10 per ounce, with the privilege of redemption, by payment of coin, within a limited time.

When subsequently immigrants began to arrive in numerous bands, any amount of labor could be obtained, provided always a most unusually high price was paid for it. Returned diggers, and those who cautiously had never went to the mines, were then also glad enough to work for rates varying from \$12 to \$30 a day; at which terms capitalists were somewhat afraid to commence any heavy undertaking. The hesitation was only for an instant. Soon all the labor that could possibly be procured was in ample request at whatever rates were demanded. The population of a great State was suddenly flocking in upon them, and no preparations had hitherto been made for its reception. Building lots had to be surveyed, and streets graded and planked—hills levelled—hollows, lagoons, and the bay itself piled, capped, filled up and planked—lumber, bricks, and all other building materials provided, at most extraordinarily high prices—houses built, finished, and furnished—great warehouses and stores erected—wharves run far out into the sea—numberless tons of goods removed from ship-board, and delivered and shipped anew everywhere—and ten thousand other things had all to be done without a moment's unnecessary delay. Long before

these things were completed, the sand-hills and barren ground around the town were overspread with a multitude of canvas, blanket, and bough-covered tents—the bay was alive with shipping and small craft, carrying passengers and goods backward and forward—the unplanked, ungraded, unformed streets (at one time moving heaps of dry sand and dust; at another, miry abysses, whose treacherous depths sucked in horse and dray, and occasionally man himself) were crowded with human beings from every corner of the universe and of every tongue—all excited and busy, plotting, speaking, working, buying and selling town lots, and beach and water lots, shiploads of every kind of assorted merchandise, the ships themselves, if they could—though that was not often—gold dust in hundred weights, ranches square leagues in extent, with their thousands of cattle—allotments in hundreds of contemplated towns, already prettily designed and laid out—on paper—and, in short, speculating and gambling in every branch of modern commerce, and in many strange things peculiar to the time and place. *And everybody made money, and was suddenly growing rich.*

The loud voices of the eager seller and as eager buyer—the laugh of reckless joy—the bold accents of successful speculation—the stir and hum of active, hurried labor, as man and brute, horse and bullock, and their guides, struggled and managed through heaps of loose rubbish, over hills of sand, and among deceiving deep mud pools and swamps, filled the amazed newly arrived immigrant with an almost appalling sense of the exuberant life, energy, and enterprise of the place. He breathed quick and faintly—his limbs grew weak as water—and his heart sunk within him as he thought of the dreadful conflict, when he approached and mingled among that confused and terrible business battle.

Gambling saloons, glittering like fairy palaces, like them suddenly sprang into existence, studding nearly all sides of the plaza, and every street in its neighborhood. As if intoxicating drinks from the well plenished and splendid bar they each contained were insufficient to gild the scene, music added its loudest, if not its sweetest, charms; and all was mad, feverish mirth, where fortunes were lost and won, upon the green cloth, in the twinkling of an eye. All classes gambled in those days, from the starchiest white neck-clothed professor to the veriest black rascal that earned a dollar for blacking massa's boots. Nobody had leisure to think, even for a moment, of his occupation, and how it was viewed in Christian lands. The heated brain was never allowed to get cool while a bit of coin or dust was left. These saloons, therefore, were crowded, night and day, by impatient revellers who never could satiate themselves with excitement, nor get rid too soon of their golden heaps.

THE VIGILANCE COMMITTEE.

By the beginning of 1851, San Francisco had become crowded with adventurers of all sorts and from every land. Many were professional criminals, and as the law failed to protect the respectable settlers against their outrages, the citizens were compelled, for their own preservation, to take the matter into their own hands.

Around Clark's Point and vicinity, in San Francisco, was the rendezvous of these villains. "Low drinking and dancing houses, lodging and gambling houses of the same mean class, the constant scenes of lewdness, drunkenness, and strife, abounded in the quarter mentioned. The daily and nightly occupants of these vile abodes had every one, more or less, been addicted to crime; and many of

them were at all times ready, for the most trifling consideration, to kill a man or fire a town. During the early hours of night, when the *Alsatia* was in revel, it was dangerous in the highest degree for a single person to venture within its bounds. Even the police hardly dared to enter there; and if they attempted to apprehend some known individuals, it was always in a numerous, strongly-armed company. Seldom, however, were arrests made. The lawless inhabitants of the place united to save their luckless brothers, and generally managed to drive the assailants away. When the different fires took place in San Francisco, bands of plunderers issued from this great haunt of dissipation, to help themselves to whatever money or valuables lay in their way, or which they could possibly secure. With these they retreated to their dens, and defied detection or apprehension. Fire, however, was only one means of attaining their ends. The most daring burglaries were committed, and houses and persons rifled of their valuables. Where resistance was made, the bowie-knife or the revolver settled matters, and left the robber unmolested. Midnight assaults, ending in murder, were common. And not only were these deeds perpetrated under the shade of night; but even in daylight, in the highways and byways of the country, in the streets of the town, in crowded bars, gambling saloons and lodging houses, crimes of an equally glaring character were of constant occurrence. People at that period generally carried during all hours, and wherever they happened to be, loaded firearms about their persons; but these weapons availed nothing against the sudden stroke of the 'slung-shot,' the plunge and rip of the knife, or the secret aiming of the pistol. No decent man was in safety to walk the streets after dark; while at all hours, both of night and day, his property was jeopardized by incendiarism and burglary.

"All this while, the law, whose supposed 'majesty' is so awful in other countries, was here only a matter for ridicule. The police were few in number, and poorly as well as irregularly paid. Some of them were in league with the criminals themselves, and assisted these at all times to elude justice. Subsequent confessions of criminals, on the eve of execution, implicated a considerable number of people in various high and low departments of the executive. Bail was readily accepted in the most serious cases, where the security tendered was absolutely worthless; and where, whenever necessary, both principal and cautioner quietly disappeared. The prisons likewise were small and insecure; and though filled to overflowing, could no longer contain the crowds of apprehended offenders. When these were ultimately brought to trial, seldom could a conviction be obtained. From technical errors on the part of the prosecutors, laws ill understood and worse applied, false swearing of the witnesses for the prisoners, absence often of the chief evidence for the prosecution, dishonesty of jurors, incapacity, weakness, or venality of the judge, and from many other causes, the cases generally broke down, and the prisoners were freed. *Not one criminal had yet been executed.* Yet it was notorious that, at this period, at least 100 murders had been committed within the space of a few months; while innumerable were the instances of arson, and of theft, robbery, burglary, and assault with intent to kill. It was evident that the offenders defied and laughed at all the puny efforts of the authorities to control them. The tedious processes of legal tribunals had no terrors for them. As yet everything had been pleasant and safe, and they saw no reason why it should not always be so. San Francisco had just been destroyed, a fifth time, by conflagration. The cities of Stockton and Nevada had likewise shared the same fate. That part of it was the doing of

incendiaries no one doubted; and, too, no one doubted but that this terrible state of things would continue, and grow worse until a new and very different executive from the legally constituted one should rise up in vengeance against those pests that worried and preyed upon the vitals of society. It was at this fearful time that the Vigilance Committee was organized."

This was in June, 1851, at which time the association organized "for the protection of the lives and property of the citizens and residents of the City of San Francisco." They formed a constitution, and selected a room in which to hold their meetings, which were entirely secret. The first person they arrested was John Jenkins, a notorious "Sydney cove." He was seized for stealing a safe on the 10th of June. About 10 o'clock that night, the signal for calling the members was given—the tolling of the bell of the Monumental Engine Company. Shortly afterward about 80 members of the Committee hurried to the appointed place, and giving the secret password were admitted. For two long hours the Committee closely examined the evidence and found him guilty. "At midnight the bell was tolled, as sentence of death by hanging was passed upon the wretched man. The solemn sounds at that unusual hour filled the anxious crowds with awe. The condemned at this time was asked if he had anything to say for himself, when he answered: 'No, I have nothing to say, only I wish to have a cigar.'" This was handed to him, and afterward, at his request, a little brandy and water. He was perfectly cool, and seemingly careless, confidently expecting, it was believed, a rescue, up to the last moment.

A little before one o'clock, Mr. S. Brannan came out of the Committee rooms, and, ascending a mound of sand to the east of the Rasette House, addressed the people. He had been deputed, he said, by the Committee, to inform them that the prisoner's case had been fairly tried, that he had been proved guilty, and was condemned to be hanged; and that the sentence would be executed within one hour upon the plaza. He then asked the people if they approved of the action of the Committee, when great shouts of Ay! Ay! burst forth, mingled with a few cries of No! In the interval a clergyman had been sent for, who administered the last consolations of religion to the condemned.

Shortly before 2 o'clock, the Committee issued from the building, bearing the prisoner (who had his arms tightly pinioned) along with them. The Committee were all armed, and closely clustered around the culprit, to prevent any possible chance of rescue. A procession was formed; and the whole party, followed by the crowd, proceeded to the plaza, to the south end of the adobe building, which then stood on the northwest corner. The opposite end of the rope which was already about the neck of the victim was hastily thrown over a projecting beam. Some of the authorities attempted at this stage of affairs to interfere, but their efforts were unavailing. They were civilly desired to stand back, and not delay what was still to be done. The crowd, which numbered upward of 1000, were perfectly quiescent, or only applauded by look, gesture, and subdued voice, the action of the Committee. Before the prisoner had reached the building, a score of persons seized the loose end of the rope and ran backward, dragging the wretch along the ground and raising him to the beam. Thus they held him till he was dead. Nor did they let the body go until some hours afterward, new volunteers relieving those who were tired holding the rope. Little noise or confusion took place. Muttered whispers among the spectators guided their movements or betrayed their feelings. The prisoner had not spoken a word, either upon the march or during the rapid preparations for his execution. At the

end he was perhaps strung up almost before he was aware of what was so immediately coming. He was a strong-built, healthy man, and his struggles, when hanging, were very violent for a few minutes.

The next execution which took place was about a month later, that of James Stuart. He was an Englishman, who had been transported to Australia for forgery. On leaving it, he wandered in various parts of the Pacific until he reached California, where he was supposed to have committed more murders and other desperate crimes than any other villain in the country. Before his death he acknowledged the justice of his punishment. He was hung July 11th, from a derrick at the end of Market street wharf, in the presence of assembled thousands.

One month more rolled round, and the Committee again exercised their duties upon the persons of Samuel Whittaker and Robert McKenzie, who were guilty of robbery, murder, and arson, and on trial confessed these crimes. The sheriff and his posse, with a writ of *habeas corpus*, took these men from the hands of the Committee and confined them in jail. The latter, fearful that the rascals would escape through the quibbles of the law, prepared for the rescue.

"About half past 2 o'clock," says the "Annals of San Francisco," "on the afternoon of Sunday, the 24th of August, an armed party, consisting of 36 members of the Vigilance Committee, forcibly broke into the jail, at a time when the Rev. Mr. Williams happened to be engaged at devotional exercises with the prisoners, among whom were Whittaker and McKenzie. The slight defence of the jailors and guards was of no avail. The persons named were seized, and hurried to and placed within a coach, that had been kept in readiness a few steps from the prison. The carriage instantly was driven off at full speed, and nearly at the same moment the ominous bell of the Monumental Engine Company rapidly and loudly tolled for the immediate assemblage of the Committee and the knell itself of the doomed. The whole population leaped with excitement at the sound; and immense crowds from the remotest quarter hurried to Battery street. There blocks, with the necessary tackle, had been hastily fastened to two beams which projected over the windows of the great hall of the Committee. Within 17 minutes after the arrival of the prisoners, they were both dangling by the neck from these beams, the loose extremities of the halters being taken within the building itself and forcibly held by members of the Committee. Full 6000 people were present, who kept an awful silence during the short time these preparations lasted. But so soon as the wretches were swung off, one tremendous shout of satisfaction burst from the excited multitude; and then there was silence again.

"This was the last time, for years, that the Committee took or found occasion to exercise their functions. Henceforward the administration of justice might be safely left in the hands of the usual officials. The city now was pretty well cleansed of crime. The fate of Jenkins, Stuart, Whittaker and McKenzie showed that rogues and roguery, of whatever kind, could no longer expect to find a safe lurking-place in San Francisco. Many of the suspected, and such as were warned off by the Committee, had departed, and gone, some to other lands, and some into the mining regions and towns of the interior. Those, however, who still clung to California found no refuge anywhere in the State. Previously, different cases of lynch law had occurred in the gold districts, but these were solitary instances which had been caused by the atrocity of particular crimes. When, however, the Vigilance Committee of San Francisco had started up, fully organ-

ized, and began their great work, Sacramento, Stockton, San José, as well as other towns and the more thickly peopled mining quarters, likewise formed their committees of vigilance and safety, and pounced upon all the rascals within their bounds. These associations interchanged information with each other as to the movements of the suspected; and all, with the hundred eyes of an Argus and the hundred arms of a Briareus, watched, pursued, harassed, and finally caught the worst desperadoes of the country. Like Cain, a murderer and wanderer, as most of them were, they bore a mark on the brow, by which they were known. Some were hanged at various places, some were lashed and branded, but the greater number were simply ordered to leave the country, within a limited time, under penalty of immediate death if found after a stated period within its limits. Justice was no longer blind or leaden-heeled. With the perseverance and speed of a bloodhound, she tracked criminals to their lair, and smote them where they lay. For a long time afterward, the whole of California remained comparatively free from outrages against person and property.

“From all the evidence that can be obtained, it is not supposed that a single instance occurred in which a really innocent man suffered the extreme penalty of death. Those who were executed generally confessed their guilt, and admitted the punishment to have been merited.”

OREGON.

Area,	95,274 Square Miles.
Population in 1860,	52,465
Population in 1870,	90,923

THE State of Oregon is situated between 42° and $46^{\circ} 20'$ N. latitude, and between $116^{\circ} 31'$ and $124^{\circ} 30'$ W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Washington Territory, on the east by Idaho Territory, on the south by Nevada and California, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. It is about 395 miles long, from east to west, and about 295 miles wide, from north to south.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The surface of the eastern part of the State, lying between the Cascade Range and the Snake River, is mostly an elevated plateau, broken by mountain ranges. The western part, lying between the ocean and the Cascade Range, is mountainous.

"The Coast Mountains and the Sierra Nevada, traversing California, continue northward through Oregon; the latter, after leaving California, are named the Cascades. Near the southern boundary the chain throws off a branch called the Blue Mountains, which extend northeastwardly through the State, passing into Washington and Idaho. The course of the Cascades through the State is generally parallel with the shore of the Pacific, and distant therefrom an average of 110 miles. In California, the direction of the Coast Mountains and coast valleys is that of general parallelism with the sea-shore; the mountains sometimes approaching close to the shore, and then receding miles from it, leaving belts of arable land between them and the ocean. In Oregon, the Coast Range consists of a series

of high lands running at right angles with the shore, with valleys and rivers between the numerous spurs having the same general direction as the highlands." *

The western part of the State is the only inhabited and regularly organized portion. It is thus described by a writer thoroughly familiar with it:

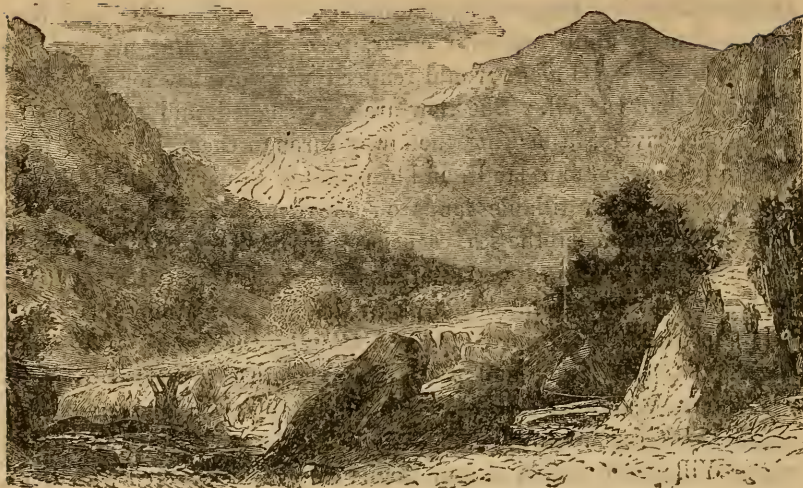
"Western Oregon, between the Cascades and the Pacific, is made up chiefly of three valleys, those of the Willamette (pronounced Willam'-ette), Umpqua, and Rogue rivers. The first named stream begins in the Cascade Mountains, runs west 60 miles, then turns northward, runs 140 miles, and empties into the Columbia. The last two begin in the Cascades, and run westward to the ocean. There are, perhaps, several thousand miners, including Chinamen, in the Rogue River Valley; but nearly the whole permanent farming population is in the Valley of the Willamette. This valley, taking the word in its more restricted sense of the low land, is from 30 to 40 miles wide, and 120 miles long. This may be said to be the whole of agricultural Oregon. It is a beautiful, fertile, well-watered plain, with a little timber along the streams, and a great deal in the mountains on each side. The soil is a gravelly clay, covered near the creeks and rivers with a rich sandy loam. The vegetation of the valley is composed of several indigenous grasses, a number of flowering plants and ferns, the latter being very abundant, and exceedingly troublesome to the farmer on account of its extremely tough vitality. The tributary streams of the Willamette are very numerous, and their course in the valley is usually crooked, as the main stream itself is, having many 'sloughs,' 'bayous,' or 'arms,' as they are differently called. In some places the land is marshy, and everywhere moist. Drouth will never be known in western Oregon; its climate is very wet, both summer and winter, the latter season being one long rain, and the former consisting of many short ones, with a little sunshine intervening. The winters are warm, and the summers rather cool—too cool for growing melons, maize, and sweet potatoes. Wheat, oats, barley, potatoes, and domestic animals thrive well. The climate, take it all in all, is much like that of England, and all plants and animals which do well in Britain will prosper in Oregon. The Oregon fruit is excellent, particularly the apples and plums; the peaches and pears are not quite so good as those of California. All along the coast of

* Report of the General Land-Office.

Oregon, there is a range of mountains about 40 miles wide, and they are so densely timbered with cedar, pine, spruce, and fir, that the density of the wood alone would render them worthless for an age, if they were not rugged. But they are very rugged, and the Umpqua and Rogue rivers, in making their way through them, have not been able to get any bottom lands, and are limited to narrow, high-walled cañons. The only tillable lands on the banks of those rivers are about 50 miles from the sea, each having a valley which, in general terms, may be described as 12 miles wide by 30 long. Rogue River Valley is separated from California by the Siskiyou Mountains, about 5000 feet high, and from Umpqua Valley by the Cañon Mountains, about 3000 feet high; and the Umpqua again is separated from the Willamette Valley by the Calapooya Mountains, also about 3000 feet high. All Oregon—that is, its western division, except the low lands of the Willamette, Umpqua, and Rogue valleys—is covered with dense timber, chiefly of coarse grained wood—such as fir, spruce, and hemlock. In the southwestern corner of the State, however, there are considerable forests of white cedar—a large and beautiful tree, producing a soft, fine-grained lumber, and very fragrant with a perfume, which might be imitated by mixing otto of roses with turpentine. Oak and ash are rare. Nearly all the trees are coniferous. In Rogue Valley and along the beach of the Pacific, there are extensive gold diggings. There are also large seams of tertiary coal at Coose Bay. These are the only valuable minerals in the State. The scenery on the Columbia is grand, from Wallawalla, where it first touches Oregon, to the ocean. There are five mountain peaks in the State, rising to the region of perpetual snow: Mount Hood, 13,700 feet high; Mount Jefferson, 11,900 feet high; the Three Sisters, Mount Scott, and Mount McLaughlin, all about 9000 feet high.”

The Columbia River, already described, forms the principal part of the northern boundary of the State. It receives the waters of the Wallawalla, Umatilla, John Day, and Falls rivers, east of the Cascade Range, and those of the Willamette, west of it. The Rogue and Umpqua rivers empty into the Pacific Ocean. The lower part of the Columbia forms a fine bay, and affords an excellent harbor. It is navigable to the falls for large vessels, and above them for a considerable distance for steamers. The Willamette is navigable to Portland for ships, and for 80 miles above the falls for small steamers. The Umpqua is navigable for 25 miles for small steamers, and its mouth forms a harbor for vessels drawing 12 feet of water.

There are several small lakes in the State.



AN OREGON VALLEY.

MINERALS.

Oregon is principally an agricultural State, but mining is growing in importance. Gold exists in the State. The deposits of copper are almost inexhaustible, and there are considerable deposits of coal in the Valley of the Willamette.

CLIMATE.

The climate is mild along the coast, but increases in severity as one proceeds eastward. The winters are very irregular, but are usually short and mild.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

In the eastern part of the State, much of the land is unfit for cultivation. In Western Oregon, the lands in the valleys are among the most fertile in America, and produce large crops.

In 1869, the agricultural resources of the State were as follows :

Acres of improved land (estimated),	1,000,000
Bushels of wheat,	1,750,000
“ rye,	5,200
“ oats,	500,000
“ buckwheat,	8,000
“ Indian corn,	200,000
“ barley,	200,000
“ Irish potatoes,	500,000

Tons of hay,	75,000
Number of horses,	49,800
“ asses and mules,	1,560
“ milch cows,	79,312
“ sheep,	101,960
“ swine,	112,700
“ young cattle,	140,500
Value of domestic animals,	\$7,946,255

COMMERCE.

Oregon has some direct trade with Europe, South America, and the Sandwich Islands, but her principal transactions are with San Francisco, between which city and Portland (Oregon), a line of fine steamships plies regularly. The exports are lumber, stock, hogs, beef, butter, eggs, chickens, pork, flour, and fish. Cattle raising forms an important part of the industry of the State, and large droves are annually driven into California for sale.

Manufactures are still unimportant. The annual product is about \$6,877,387.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

The internal improvements of this State consist of the works that have been erected by a private corporation for the improvement of the navigation of the Columbia River, and the railroads built around the falls of that stream, and connecting the successive stages of navigation. There are 159 miles of railroad within the State. The principal is that of the Oregon Central Railroad, which is to extend from Portland to the California border, where it will ultimately connect with a road from San Francisco. It has been completed from Portland to Salem.

EDUCATION.

There are three colleges in the State. The principal of these is the Willamette University, at Salem, which is under the charge of the Methodist Church. It is an excellent institution, and has an endowment of \$30,000.

The common school system is similar to that of the Eastern States. The Superintendent of Public Instruction has the general supervision of the schools. The counties have each a Local Superintendent, and each district is governed by its Board of Trustees. A school fund has been established, and taxes are levied for the support of the schools. Measures are on foot for the establishment of a State University.

In 1870, there were 594 public schools in the State, with 29,822 pupils.

In the same year, there were 2361 libraries in Oregon, containing 334,959 volumes.

The number of newspapers and periodicals was as follows: 4 daily, 26 weekly, and 5 monthly, making a total of 35, with a total annual circulation of 3,657,300 copies.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The Penitentiary is located at Portland, and is a flourishing institution. The convicts are confined in temporary quarters, due regard being had to their safe keeping, and are required to labor on the public buildings.

Measures are being taken for the erection of buildings for charitable and benevolent purposes by the State, and as soon as the pecuniary condition of the Commonwealth will permit it, these institutions will be provided. At present the insane and idiotic are cared for by private persons at the expense of the State.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870, there were 135 churches in Oregon. The value of church property was \$471,100.

FINANCES.

In September, 1874, the total State debt was \$596,256. During the two fiscal years extending from September 5th, 1872, to September 5th, 1874, the receipts of the Treasury were \$628,775, and the expenditures for the same period \$663,193.

GOVERNMENT.

Every male citizen of the United States who has resided in the State six months, and every male foreigner who has lawfully declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States, who is twenty-one years old, and has resided in the State one year, is entitled to vote at the elections.

The Government consists of a Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Auditor, and a Legislature, consisting of a Senate (of 16 members), and a House of Representatives (of 34 members), all

chosen by the people. The State officers and Senators are elected for four years, and Representatives for two years. The general election is held in June, and the Legislature meets biennially in September.

The judicial power of the State is vested in a Supreme Court and five Circuit Courts. The judges of the Supreme Court are five in number, and are also judges of the Circuit Courts. They are elected by the people for six years.

The seat of Government is located at Salem.

The State is divided into 22 counties.

HISTORY.

Oregon was known to various navigators during the 17th and 18th centuries, but the first white man who entered it was Captain Robert Gray, of the ship *Columbia*, of Boston, who on the 7th of May, 1792, entered and explored the lower part of its principal river, to which he gave the name of his ship. On his return home he published a description of the river and its valley, which aroused so much interest on the part of the Government, that in 1804 an exploring expedition was sent out across the Continent, under Captains Lewis and Clark, of the United States army. The explorations of this party extended through the years 1804 and 1805, and made known for the first time the vast region watered by the *Columbia*.

In 1811, the American Fur Company, of which John Jacob Astor was the leading member, established a post for trading purposes at the mouth of the *Columbia River*, and called it *Astoria*. It was the design of the Company to make this place an important city, in course of time, but this part of their project failed, and they sold the post to the Northwest Company (of England), to save it from capture during the war of 1812-15.

Having thus secured a lodgement on the *Columbia*, the British claimed the whole country. The United States, on the other hand, claimed the region now known as *British Columbia*, and a serious controversy set in between the two powers. In 1846, however, a treaty between the United States and Great Britain adjusted the difficulty. The United States weakly surrendered the greater part of our claim, and the present northern boundary of Washington Territory was fixed as the northern boundary of Oregon.

Emigration to the Territory began in 1839. In 1850, there

were about 3000 settlers. The gold excitement in California drew off many, but Congress by a liberal offer of lands induced a sufficient number to remain, to prevent the country from relapsing into its wild state. From this time the Territory grew slowly but steadily.

On the 14th of August, 1848, Oregon was organized as a Territory, and on the 2nd of March, 1843, the northern half was erected into a separate establishment, and called Washington Territory. In November, 1857, a State Constitution was adopted by the people, and on the 14th of February, 1859, Oregon was admitted into the Union as a sovereign State.

The Indians for a long time caused great trouble to the people of Oregon, and greatly hindered its growth. They have now ceased their depredations, and the State is growing in population and in material prosperity.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Besides the capital, the principal places in the State are, Portland, Oregon City, Albany, Corvallis, and Eugene City.

SALEM,

The capital of the State, is situated in Marion county, on the right or eastern bank of the Willamette River, 50 miles south-southwest of Portland, and 710 miles north of San Francisco. Latitude $44^{\circ} 56'$ N., longitude $123^{\circ} 1'$ W. The city lies in a rich prairie country, in the midst of some of the most beautiful scenery of the State. It contains the State buildings, 6 or 7 churches, 4 hotels, a theatre, 2 newspaper offices, and several schools. It is the seat of the Willamette University. It has 1 woollen mill, 1 flour mill, 3 saw mills, 2 machine shops, and 1 foundry, in successful operation. Travellers who have seen it, describe it as one of the prettiest and most enterprising towns on the Pacific coast. The Willamette is navigable to Salem for small steamers during the season of high water, or for about 9 months in the year. In 1870, the population was 2842.

PORTLAND,

The largest and most important city of the State, is situated in Multnomah county, on the left or west bank of the Willamette River, 15 miles from its mouth, 50 miles north-by-east of Salem, and 120 miles

from the mouth of the Columbia River. The city is beautifully situated in a lovely country, and is well built, the houses being mostly of wood. It stands on a plateau, which gradually increases in height as it recedes from the river, until it forms a range of hills at the western extremity of the city. From the summit of this range a magnificent view is obtained of Mounts Hood, Jefferson, and St. Helen, of the Cascade Range, and the windings of the Willamette and Columbia rivers. Portland contains 4 or 5 churches, several schools, 3 newspaper offices and a public library. It is the seat of the *State Penitentiary* and the *Insane Asylum*. The Oregon Iron Works and 2 assay offices are located here. It is governed by a Mayor and Council, and in 1870, it contained a population of 8293.

Portland lies at the head of ship navigation on the Willamette, and is the centre of a large and growing trade, with the magnificent region to the north and northwest of it. It has telegraphic communication with San Francisco, and is connected with Sacramento by a line of daily stages. Upwards of 20 river steamers ply between Portland and the various towns on the Columbia and Willamette rivers. A line of steamships connects the city with San Francisco. Says Mr. Samuel Bowles, in his "New West:"

"Ships and ocean steamers of the highest class come readily hither; from it spreads out a wide navigation by steamboat of the Columbia and its branches, below and above; here centres a large and increasing trade, not only for the Willamette Valley, but for the mining regions of Eastern Oregon and Idaho, Washington Territory on the north, and parts even of British Columbia beyond. Even Salt Lake and Montana, too, have taken groceries and dry goods through this channel, such are the attained and the attainable water communications through the far-extending Columbia.

"The population of Portland is now from eight to ten thousand, who keep Sunday with as much strictness almost as Puritanic New England does, which can be said of no other population this side of the Rocky Mountains, at least. Whether this fact has anything to do with it or not, real estate we found to be very high in Portland, \$400 a front foot for the best lots, 100 feet deep on the main business street, without the buildings. In religion, the Methodists have the lead, and control an academie school in the town, and a professed State University at Salem; the Presbyterians are next, with a beautiful church and the most fashionable congregation.

COLORADO.

Area,	104,500 square miles.
Population in 1870,	39,864

THE State of Colorado lies between 37° and 41° N. latitude, and between 102° and 109° W. longitude. It is about 375 miles long, from east to west, and 275 miles wide, from north to south.

TOPOGRAPHY.

The surface of the State is mountainous. Here are to be found some of the highest peaks of the Rocky Mountain range, which passes, from the north to the south, through the middle of the State. "The average height of these mountains is 12,000 feet, though many of the peaks rise from 2000 to 5000 feet higher. The foot hills flank the range on either hand to a distance of fifty miles; to the eastward subsiding into the plains; to the westward sloping to the base of other and continuous ranges of lesser height, which fill the spaces thence to the Pacific. This majestic range holds within its folds the North, South, Middle and San Luis Parks, immense areas of level land—surrounded by snowy mountains—each having a soil, climate and geological formation peculiar and distinctive. The plains imperceptibly slope from the base of the mountains, which rise abruptly from them to the Missouri river; presenting a smooth, undulating surface, destitute of timber, save in the valleys of the water-courses, and upon the high land, which near the mountains divides the waters of the Platte and Arkansas rivers."

The Platte and Arkansas rivers rise near the centre of the State, and drain the eastern part. From the western slopes of the Rocky Mountains flow the Tampa, or Bear river, the Bunkara and Gunison rivers. The Bunkara and Gunison unite in the western part and form the Grand river, which is a branch of the Colorado. The Rio Grande rises in the southern part of the State, and flows southward.

MINERALS.

Colorado is very rich in mineral deposits. Gold and silver are abundant in the central part among the mountains. Copper, iron, coal, salt, limestone, and gypsum also exist in large quantities. The gold mines have thus far almost monopolized the attention of capitalists. There is a branch of the United States Mint at Denver, at which large quantities of the precious metals are assayed. "The mountain region," says a pamphlet, published by the Denver Board of Trade, "contains mines of gold, silver, copper, and lead, which are destined, under the influence of capital and cheap labor, to give to the American people for all time the monetary supremacy of the commercial world. The mineral belt extends the whole length of the range, and includes thirty miles of each of its flanks, making an aggregate of 14,000 square miles of mineral land. In the two counties of Gilpin and Clear Creek, alone, not less than 12,000 distinct lodes have been discovered and recorded, and it is safe to say that of this number there are not less than 100 capable of annually yielding, under favorable circumstances, such as the completion of projected railroads will secure, \$500,000 each, a total of \$50,000,000."

The State is deficient in timber. In the eastern portion are extensive sandy plains, covered with a thick growth of the wild sage and prickly pear. Large herds of the buffalo, elk, antelope, and deer roam over the unsettled portions of the State. The bear is also found in the mountains, and along the lakes and marshes are to be found wild ducks and geese.

CLIMATE.

"The climate of Colorado varies with its height, both as to temperature and the amount of rain and snow. The climate of that portion lying at the base and east of the mountains is not only delightful but remarkably healthy. The frosts come, generally, early in the autumn, and continue far into the spring months; but they are not severe. On the plains the snows of winter are never sufficient to prevent cattle of all kinds from thriving and fattening on the nutritious grass dried up and thus cured by nature in July and August. Throughout the winter months, with rare exceptions, the sun blazes down with an almost tropic glow, little or no snow falls, and although the nights are sometimes sharp and frosty, there is no steady intensity of cold. With such a climate Colorado could not well be otherwise

than healthy. The sanitary condition of the State is good, and the number of deaths, considering the labor and exposure to which the great majority of its inhabitants are subjected, remarkably small."

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.

"In a country so remote from the agricultural districts of the States, and where the expense of transporting supplies is so heavy, the need of home productions is necessarily very great. The rather scanty opportunities which Colorado presents as a field for agriculture have been, however, improved to the utmost. An extensive system of irrigation has been introduced, which, it is thought, will relieve the settlers from lack of rain, and other difficulties which have hitherto limited agricultural progress. As regards the production of grain, the crops on the various branches of the South Platte, Arkansas, Fontaine que Bruille, afford encouraging prospects.

"In the southern part of the State, considerable attention has been paid to the raising of wheat, corn, barley, and other cereals; but the continuance of dry weather presents a formidable obstacle to great success in this direction. The bottom lands of the Platte river, and other mountain streams, have a rich alluvial deposit, which only requires water at long intervals to promote an astonishing vegetable growth. All the succulent varieties of plants, such as potatoes, cabbages, onions, squashes, etc., attain an enormous size, retaining the tenderness, juiciness, and sweetness which almost everywhere else belong only to the smaller varieties. The wild fruits of the State are also numerous and abundant. It is believed that Colorado will, in a few years, be able to supply her own home demand for the necessities of life. As a grazing and stock-raising region, Colorado possesses great advantages. Near the base of the Rocky ranges, and along the valleys of the streams which have their origin in the mountains, vegetation is prolific. The grasses are not only abundant, but they contain more nutriment than the cultivated species of the most prosperous agricultural districts of the Mississippi valley. These grasses cure standing, and cattle have been known to feed and thrive upon them throughout the entire winter months."

In 1870, Colorado produced 860,000 bushels of wheat, 575,000 bushels of corn, 825,000 bushels of oats and barley, and 800,000 bushels of potatoes. The entire wealth of the State has been stated at \$50,000,000. During the year 1870, gold and silver were shipped

from the Territory to the amount of \$5,454,000. A School of Mines has been established at Golden City.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.

The manufactures of Colorado are in their infancy. In 1870, the capital invested in them amounted to \$2,835,605, and yielded an annual product of \$2,852,820. The commerce of the State consists in the export of its mining products and of cattle, sheep and wool.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

The Kansas Pacific and the Denver Pacific railways connect Colorado with Chicago, St. Louis, and San Francisco. The railway system of the State is being rapidly developed. In 1874 there were 642 miles of railway within the limits of Colorado.

EDUCATION.

Although so young a State, Colorado has an efficient system of public schools. The Superintendent of Public Education is appointed by the Governor for two years, and receives a salary of \$1200 per annum. There are 25 county superintendents. In 1874 there were 243 school districts, 180 schools, and 125 school houses, with an attendance of 7546. The State has also an agricultural college.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

In 1870 there were 47 churches in Colorado. In the same year the value of church property was \$207,230.

FINANCES.

The finances of the State are in a prosperous condition. The annual expenses of the State government are fully covered by the receipts of the Treasury.

GOVERNMENT.

The government of the State consists of a Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Auditor and Adjutant-General, elected by the people of the State. The Legislature consists of a Senate of 13 members, and a House of Representatives of 26 members. The judicial power of the State is vested in a Supreme Court, District Courts, Probate

Courts, and Justices of the Peace. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and two Associates, appointed by the Governor of the State for a term of four years. For District Court purposes the State is divided into three districts, in each of which a Justice of the Supreme Court holds the sessions. The Supreme and District Courts have chancery as well as common law jurisdiction.

HISTORY.

In 1859, gold was discovered in Colorado, in the vicinity of Pike's Peak, and emigrants flocked to the Territory, and by 1860 it contained 34,277 inhabitants. In March, 1861, the Territory of Colorado was organized, being constructed of portions of Kansas, Nebraska, and Utah. The Territory several times applied for admission into the Union as a State, but without success. At length Congress, on the 4th of March, 1875, passed a bill, which received the executive approval, admitting Colorado into the Union as a State, making the thirty-eighth member of the confederacy.

DENVER.

The capital of the State is thus described in the publication of the Denver Board of Trade, from which we have quoted :

"Denver is beautifully situated on a plain, at the junction of Cherry Creek with the South Platte, 12 miles from the foot of the mountains, with an altitude of 5000 feet above tide level. The population is about 6000. Men from the East gaze with astonishment on this compactly built, busy settlement, with the peculiarities to the full of a large city, standing in the '*Great American Desert*,' 700 miles from what has hitherto been supposed the *ultima thule* of inhabitable land on the Atlantic slope of the United States.

"Among the public buildings there are six churches, several of them imposing brick structures, belonging to the Episcopal, Methodist, Baptist, Presbyterian, Congregational and Catholic societies respectively; two free and several select schools. It is connected with the East, with Central City and Georgetown, by telegraph lines, and is shortly to have the same communication with Santa Fé, New Mexico.

"There are two first-class flouring mills, run by water, capable of making several hundred sacks of flour per day; two planing mills, sash and door factories, gunsmiths' and jewelry shops, cabinet manufacturers, upholsterers, etc.

THE TERRITORIES.

A L A S K A .

Area, 577,390 Square Miles.
Population, 75,000 (including 65,000 Indians).

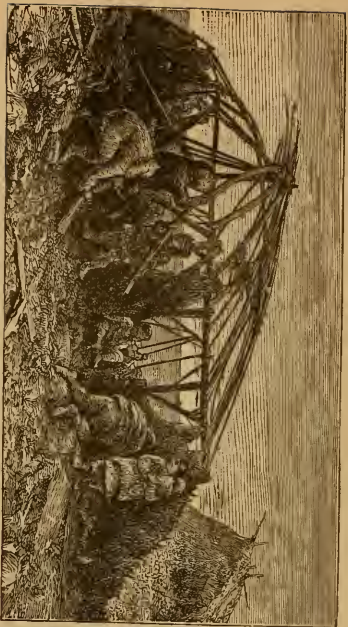
THE Territory of Alaska comprises that portion of North America lying north of the parallel of $54^{\circ} 40'$ N. latitude, and west of the meridian of 141° W. longitude. Within these limits are included many islands lying along the coast, and extending west from the main land.

The boundaries are as follows: Commencing at $54^{\circ} 40'$ N. latitude, ascending Portland Channel to the mountains, following their summits to the 141° west longitude; thence north, on this line, to the Arctic Ocean, forming the eastern boundary. Starting from the Arctic Ocean west, the line descends Behring's Strait, between the two islands of Krusenstern and Ratmanoff, to the parallel of $65^{\circ} 30'$, and proceeds due north without limitation, into the same Arctic Ocean. Beginning again at the same initial point, on the parallel of $65^{\circ} 30'$, thence in a course southwest through Behring's Strait, between the island of St. Lawrence and Cape Choukotski to the 172° west longitude; and thence southwesterly, through Behring's sea, between the islands of Attou and Copper, to the meridian of 193° west longitude; leaving the prolonged group of the Aleutian islands in the possessions now transferred to the United States, and making the western boundary of our country the dividing line between Asia and America.

"With the exception of the narrow strip extending in a southeast direction along the coast nearly 400 miles, and the remarkable peninsula of Alaska, it forms a tolerably compact mass, with an average length and breadth of about 600 miles each. Its greatest length, north and south, from the southern extremity of Alaska to Point Bar-

row, is about 1100 miles; its greatest breadth, measured on the Arctic Circle, which passes through Cape Prince of Wales, is about 800 miles; the longest line that can be drawn across the country is from Cape Prince of Wales to its southern extremity, latitude $54^{\circ} 40'$, a distance of about 1600 miles. Estimated area, 394,000 square miles. The part of the mainland south of Mount St. Elias consists of a narrow belt, which is continued along a mountain ridge parallel to the coast, and has nowhere a greater width than about 33 miles. The interior of the country is very little known; but from several expeditions, it appears that throughout its western part it is elevated and uneven, while the part extending along the Arctic Ocean is invariably flat, with the exception of a small portion lying between 141° and 152° W. longitude. The coasts of the mainland and the islands have almost all been carefully explored. The northern coast was first discovered in the course of the present century. Captain Cook, in 1778, during his last voyage, reached Icy Cape, latitude $70^{\circ} 20' N.$, and $161^{\circ} 46' W.$; and it was supposed, from the large masses of ice there met with, even in summer, that further progress was impossible. In 1826, however, Captain Beechy proceeded east as far as North Cape, or Point Barrow, latitude $71^{\circ} 23' 31'' N.$, longitude $156^{\circ} 21' 32'' W.$; while at the same time the lamented Sir John Franklin, then Captain Franklin, traced the coast west from the mouth of the Mackenzie to Return Reef, latitude $70^{\circ} 26' N.$, longitude $148^{\circ} 52' W.$ The intervening space between Point Barrow and Return Reef was first explored in 1837, by Dease and Simpson, officers of the Hudson's Bay Company.

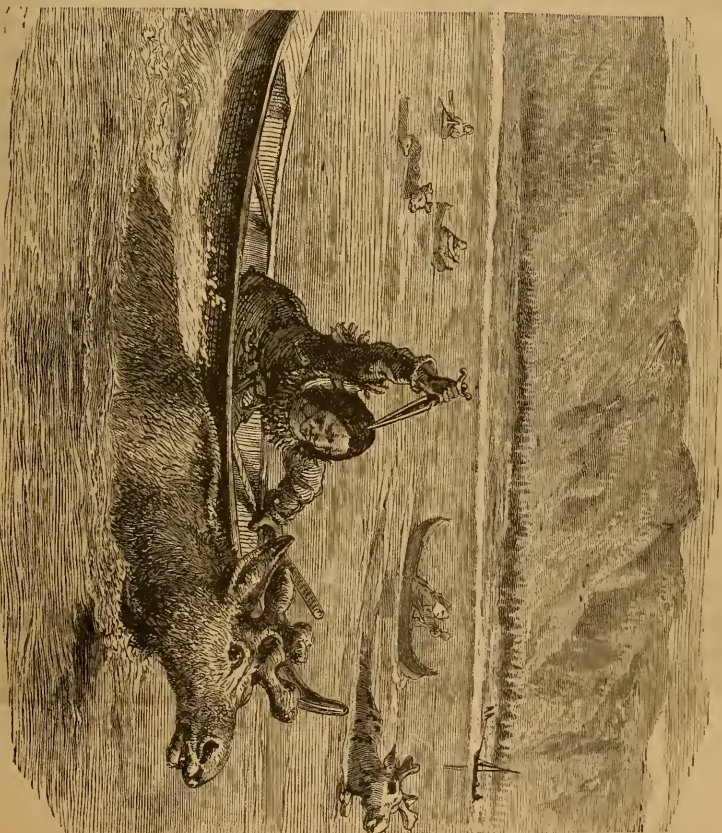
"The whole of the northern coast of Russian America, from Demarcation Point west to Point Barrow, its northernmost extremity, stretches with tolerable regularity in a west-northwest direction, and is, with the exception of a small part in the east, a dead flat, often nearly on a level with the sea, and never more than from 10 to 20 feet above it. From Point Barrow the coast takes a uniform direction, from northeast to southwest, rising gradually towards Cape Lisburn, which is 850 feet high. It here turns south, forming, between the two large inlets of Kotzebue Sound and Norton Sound, the remarkable peninsula of Prince of Wales, which projects into Behring's Strait, and terminates in an elevated promontory, forming the northwestern part of North America. From Norton Sound it turns first southwest, then south-southeast, becoming indented by several large bays, including those of Bristol Bay and Cook's Inlet, on the opposite of the long and narrow peninsula of Alaska; and is lined almost throughout by



NATIVES HOUSEBUILDING, ALASKA.



SKIN CANOE AND INDIANS, ALASKA.



MOOSE-HUNTING IN THE YUKON RIVER, ALASKA.



ICEBERGS AS SEEN OFF THE NORTHERN SHORES OF ALASKA.

several groups of large islands, of which the most important belong to the Aleutian, Kodiak, and King George III. Archipelagoes. The greater part of the coast last described is very bold, presenting a succession of lofty volcanic peaks."

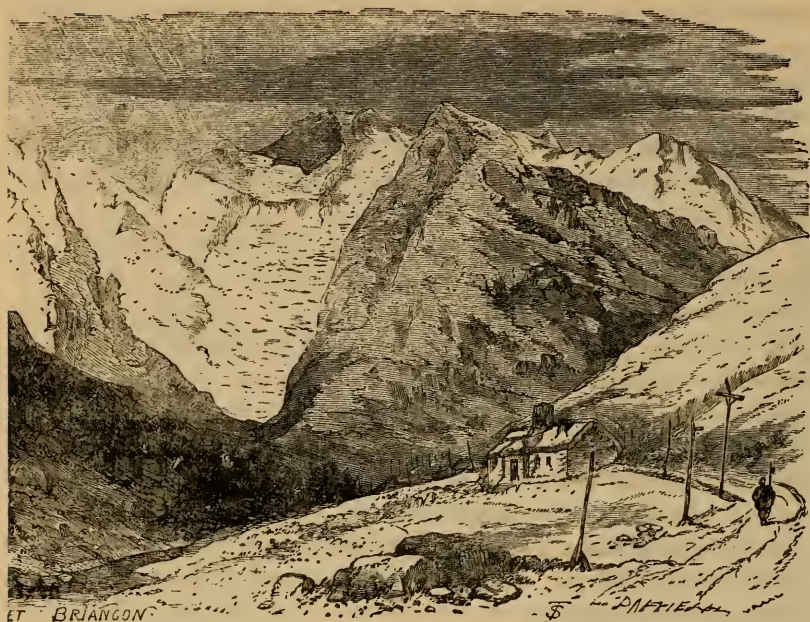
The interior has been very little explored. The latest discoveries were made by the party engaged in surveying the route for the overland telegraph to Russia.

The coast line of the Territory is about 4000 miles in extent. Including bays and rivers it exceeds 11,000 miles. The peninsula of Alaska is 300 miles in length, with an average breadth of 50 miles. The Aleutian Islands are the summits of a mountain range, which extends northward on the American coast, around the head of Prince William and Cook's Inlet, and down the peninsula of Alaska. They form a perfect curve southward, westward, and northward, from the extremity of the peninsula to Behring's Island, a distance of 1075 miles, and constitute the most wonderful range of volcanic islands in the Western World. The six largest are all inhabited. The southern sides of these islands are generally steep and without indentation, consequently the inhabitants dwell on the north side, where the harbors are good. The islands have an area of from 350 to 1500 square miles. They are Ounimak, Ounalaska, Oumnak, Atkha, Amchitka, and Atton. Ounalaska has 700 inhabitants; the others each about half that number. In Behring's Sea are the islands of St. Lawrence and Nounbak, each possessing an area of more than 2000 square miles.

There are several rivers in the Territory. The principal stream is the Yukon, which flows into Behring's Sea, south of Norton's Sound. The Russians gave the name of Kwichpak to the lower part of this river. Like the Mississippi it discharges its waters through a number of mouths, and its "delta" embraces nearly two degrees of latitude. It is 2000 miles long, is navigable for nearly 1500 miles, and is free from ice between the middle of May and the middle of October.

The mountains are high and imposing. The height of Mount St. Elias is estimated at from 15,000 to 18,000 feet. Although situated 40 miles from the coast, it is seen at sea at a distance of 100 miles from the land. Mount Fairweather is 100 miles to the southeast of it, and is almost as high. Several active volcanoes, some of which are 10,000 feet high, lie within the Territory.

The climate is variable, but is milder than that of the same latitudes on the Atlantic coast. "The investigations which have attended and followed the change in the political relations of the country, have



MOUNT ST. ELIAS.

developed some new facts with regard to it. The great extent of the Territory gives it a corresponding variety of climate, but the mean temperature is but little colder than that of Maine and New Brunswick, owing to the thermal current from the shores of Asia; the atmosphere is very humid, and a large quantity of rain falls in winter. The interior has been but little explored, and is an almost unknown wilderness, the haunt of the Indians, and of the fur-bearing animals. Along many of the streams there is an abundance of timber, mostly of pine. The agricultural resources of the country form a very inconsiderable item in an account of its value as an acquisition to the United States, yet the districts along the coast are capable of yielding, in moderate quantities, the cereal grains and the more valuable vegetables of the temperate zone. The precious metals are known to exist there, but it is a fact of more importance that iron and coal are found in considerable abundance, and can be obtained at no very great expense. Two mines have for some time been successfully worked on the Aleutian Islands, and, with the iron works which they supply, are of great importance to vessels needing repair and in want of fuel. The principal value of the Territory of Alaska, for the present, will

depend on its fisheries and its fur productions. The supply of furs is on the decrease, owing to the active traffic which had been carried on in that commodity, but the fisheries are inexhaustible. Salmon abound in the rivers, and cod and halibut on the coasts. Whales and walrus are plentiful in the seas to the south of Behring's Strait."

There are about 10,000 persons, besides Indians, in the Territory, including the military force stationed there. These consist of Americans, who have gone there since the purchase, Russians, Creoles, Kodiaks, and Aleoots. The native or Indian inhabitants, some 65,000 in number, dwell principally along the coast and rivers, where fish and game are plentiful. They learn quickly, and exhibit a decided aptitude for commerce and the mechanic arts. They show great skill in fashioning their rude instruments of warfare and domestic utensils. Many of them, however, are vagabondish, and bear an unenviable reputation.

There is as yet no organized civil government for the Territory. The Government of the United States maintains and exercises its authority through the military force stationed at Sitka and other places. During the last session of Congress, an unsuccessful effort was made to organize Alaska as a county of Washington Territory.

This extensive Territory, formerly known as Russian America, was granted by the Emperor Paul VIII., of Russia, in July, 1799, to a Russian-American Fur Company. In 1867, it was purchased by the United States from the Emperor of Russia, for the sum of \$7,200,000. In July, 1868, Congress extended over the Territory the laws of the United States relating to customs, commerce, and navigation, and established a collection district. In August, 1868, the military district of Alaska was established, and attached to the Department of California.

SITKA, or, NEW ARCHANGEL, on the island of Sitka, is the seat of Government. It contains a population of about 500 Russians, Cossacks, and Creoles, besides the garrison, and there are about 1000 Indians in the vicinity. It has but one street, with straggling log houses. It contains the "Governor's House," now the headquarters of the military commander, a Greek church, a Lutheran chapel, and the buildings of the Russian-American Fur Company.

"The town is situated on a low strip of land, the Governor's House rising on a rocky height 100 feet or so above the general level. Snow-capped and peaked mountains, and thickly wooded hills sur-



SITKA.

round it, and Mount Edgecumbe, on Crooze Island, immediately opposite the town, an extinct volcano, 8000 feet in height, is the great land-mark of this port—the most northern harbor on the Pacific shores of America. The coloring of the town is gay, and the surroundings picturesque. The houses yellow, with sheet iron roofs painted red; the bright green spire and dome of the Greek church, and the old battered hulks, roofed in and used as magazines, lying propped up on the rocks at the water's edge, with the antiquated buildings of the Russian Fur Company, give Sitka an original, foreign, and fossilized kind of appearance."

A R I Z O N A .

Area,	113,916 square miles.
Population in 1870,	9,658

THE Territory of Arizona lies between $31^{\circ} 20'$ and 37° N. latitude, and between 109° and 114° W. longitude. Its extreme length, from north to south, is about 400 miles, and its extreme width, from east to west, about 330 miles. It is bounded on the north by Utah Territory and Nevada; on the east by the Territory of New Mexico; on the south by the Republic of Mexico; and on the west by California and Nevada.

A large part of the Territory is mountainous. Numerous ranges traverse it in a generally northwest and southeast direction. The principal ranges are the Sierra del Carrizo, in the northern part; the Mogollon Mountains, in the eastern part; the Pinaleno, or Pinon Llano mountains, in the southeastern part; Mt. San Francisco, in the northern part of the central portion, and the Aztec Mountains, in the west. As a general rule, the surface of the Territory is elevated and mountainous, and a large portion is believed to be of volcanic origin. It also contains a number of extensive plains without trees.

The principal rivers are the *Colorado*, which forms a part of the northern and western boundaries, the *Little Colorado*, the *Gila*, which flows westward across the southern part of the Territory, the *Santa Cruz*, the *Bill Williams Fork* of the Colorado, the *Rio Verde*, the *Rio San Pedro*, and the *Rio Salinas*. The Colorado is navigable for steamers for about 600 miles within the limits of Arizona. Its navigation is difficult and dangerous, however, in consequence of the force of the current, and the frequent shifting of the channel. In spite of these obstacles the water communication which it furnishes from por-



AZTEC MOUNTAINS.

tions of New Mexico, Arizona, Nevada, and Utah, to the sea, is of the greatest value to those regions.

Gold, silver, copper, mercury, and lead, are found in the Territory. Valuable silver mines are worked in the central and southern portions of Arizona, especially along the Colorado and Gila rivers. The great drawbacks to the success of mining enterprises in this Territory are the scarcity of water in the vicinity of the mines, and the hostility of the Indians. It is believed that the mineral wealth of Arizona very largely exceeds the discoveries that have thus far been made.

A very large part of the land is utterly barren. The basin of the Colorado consists of elevated table-lands, broken by mountain ranges. The valleys of these ranges are fertile. South of the Gila, and west of the 112th meridian, the country is sandy, and not generally fertile, except along the river. In other portions, there are many rich valleys and fertile prairies, containing millions of acres, and producing wheat, barley, oats, tobacco, vegetables, and fruits. Cotton and sugar grow well in the south, and grazing lands, of the finest quality, are abundant. Wood is scarce throughout the Territory, and, in many parts, is entirely absent. In the north-central portion is a large forest of yellow pine, interspersed with oak. Cottonwood grows along the shores of the streams. In the southeast part grows a low, stunted tree, called the Mezquit. It is of no use for building, but is said to be valuable for mining purposes.

A REST ON THE PRAIRIE.





PROCURING POISON FOR HIS ARROWS.

The climate is mild. In southern Arizona, and along a portion of the Colorado, the summers are too warm to allow the performance of work in the open air. In the central portion the sun is rarely so oppressive. In the mountain regions the nights are always cool. Snow falls in the central and northern portion, but does not remain long upon the ground.

The Territory is sparsely inhabited, the settlements being confined to the southern portion. Its population in 1870 is no larger than that of 1850. The inhabitants consist of American settlers, miners, Spanish, half-breeds, and Indians. The towns are built chiefly of adobe, or sun-dried bricks, and bear a close resemblance to the Mexican towns, having but few marks of American civilization about them. The greatest obstacle to the settlement of the Territory has been the merciless depredations of the Apachee Indians. The military force of the United States stationed in the Territory is small, and the people are obliged to protect themselves by volunteer companies. The Governor, in his last message, urges the people to form military companies in all the settlements, and to exterminate the Apachees as far as possible.

There are no railways or telegraphs, and no public schools in the Territory. The Governor and Secretary are appointed by the President. The Legislature and other officials are all elected by the people. The principal towns are Tucson, containing 3000 inhabitants, Prescott, with 1200 inhabitants, and Arizona City, with a population of 600. They are all wretched places, built of adobe, and filled with dirt and half civilized people. Ross Browne thus describes Tucson: "A city of mud boxes, dingy and dilapidated, cracked and baked into a composite of dust and filth; littered about with broken corrals, sheds, bake-ovens, carcasses of dead animals, and broken pottery; barren of verdure, parched, naked, and grimly desolate in the glare of a southern sun. Adobe walls without whitewash inside or out, hard earthen floors, baked and dried Mexicans, sore-backed burros, Coyote dogs, and terra-cotta children; soldiers, teamsters, and honest miners lounging about the mescal shops, soaked with the fiery poison; a noisy band of Sonoran buffoons, dressed in theatrical costume, cutting their antics in the public places to the most diabolical din of fiddles and guitars ever heard; a long train of Government wagons preparing to start for Fort Yuma or the Rio Grande—these are what the traveller sees, and a great many things more, but in vain he looks for a hotel or lodging house.

D A K O T A .

Area,	152,000 Square Miles
Population in 1870,	14,181

THE Territory of Dakota lies between 43° and 49° N. latitude, and between $96^{\circ} 25'$ and 104° W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by British America, on the east by Minnesota and Iowa, on the south by Nebraska and Colorado Territory, and on the west by Montana and Wyoming Territories. It is about 400 miles long, from north to south, and nearly as broad.

A recent Report of a Committee of the Legislature of Dakota, thus speaks of the Territory :

“The Territory occupies the most elevated section of country between the Arctic Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico; forming, to a great extent, the water-shed of the two great basins of North America—the Missouri and the Mississippi rivers, and the tributaries of Hudson Bay. Thus within the limits of Dakota are found the sources of rivers running diametrically opposite; those flowing northward reach a region of eternal ice, while those flowing southward pass from the haunts of the grizzly bear and the region of wild rice through the cotton-fields and the sugar plantations of the Southerner, until their waters are mingled with the blue waves of the Gulf.

“The general surface of the country east and north of the Missouri is a beautiful, rich, undulating prairie, free from marsh, swamp, or slough; traversed by many streams and dotted over with innumerable lakes of various sizes, whose wooded margins, and rocky shores, and gravelly bottoms afford the settler the purest water, and give to the scenery of the Territory much of its interest and fascination. West of the Missouri the country is more rolling, and generally becomes

broken, hilly, and finally mountainous, as the western limits are reached and terminated by the Rocky Mountains.

"The mighty Missouri runs through the very heart of our Territory, and gives us more than 1000 miles of navigable water-course, thus giving us the facility of cheap water transportation, by means of which we can bear away the surplus products of our rich, luxuriant lands to Southern markets, and receive in exchange the trade and commerce of all climes and lands.

"We have, located on the Missouri, Big Sioux, Red River of the North, Vermilion, Dakota, and Niobrara, millions and millions of acres of the richest and most productive of lands to be found anywhere within the bounds of the National Government.

"We have, combined, the pleasant, salubrious climate of Southern Minnesota, and the fertility of Central Illinois."

The principal rivers are the Missouri, the Red River of the North, the Big Sioux, Big Cheyenne, and the White Earth. Concerning these streams, the Report quoted above proceeds as follows: "The Missouri River extends a thousand miles through the Territory, and is navigable for steamboats the entire distance, and hundreds of miles above. The country along the river is of unsurpassed fertility. The Big Sioux River is 200 miles long, a clear running stream of clear water, and cannot be surpassed for fertility of soil and the variety and luxuriance of its vegetation. The bottom lands on this stream are from a half to three miles wide, and bear an enormous growth of blue-joint grass, which makes hay of an excellent quality. The Big Cheyenne is a most important river, and has its extreme source west of the Black Hills, which its two main branches enclose. These forks are supplied by numerous streams from the mountains, and they unite in about longitude $102^{\circ} 20'$, the river flowing into the Missouri in latitude $44^{\circ} 48'$. In its lower course there is fertile land on its banks, and there are considerable areas in and around the Black Hills. The Cheyenne River can be rafted, and the stream that comes from the hills could be used to drive the logs down the river, and thus a way is opened to this fine supply of timber. White Earth River has generally an open well-wooded valley, with fine soil and luxuriant grass. Any one who travels in Nebraska will always feel rejoiced when he reaches the banks of this beautiful stream. It is much resorted to by the Brulés. It has numerous branches, the largest of which is called the South Fork. The pine on White River and its tributaries is nearly equal in extent to that on the Niobrara. This

stream has been used by traders to boat down their furs. I believe it can also be used to raft down the pine timber on its banks and branches. Lieutenant Warren speaks very favorably of the Niobrara River, which is partly in our Territory, that there is considerable pine timber on its banks and branches, and much good land and excellent water. The Red River of the North, rises in Lake Travers, flows north 380 miles to the British possessions, and is a navigable stream its entire distance, well-wooded, and a soil unsurpassed in fertility. There are a number of other small streams, some of which have abundance of timber, and a good soil, and clear running water. There are quite a number of lakes in East Dakota remarkable for their beauty, and with their sylvan associations form the prominent charm of its rural landscape. There is an abundance of timber on some of these lakes surrounded with a good soil, water, and plenty of fish in the waters of the same. All the streams of Dakota abound in delicious fish of many varieties.

"The prevailing soil of Dakota is a dark, calcareous, sandy loam, containing a various intermixture of clay, abounding in mineral salts, and an organic ingredient derived from the accumulation of decomposed vegetable matter, for long ages of growth and decay. The earthy materials of our soil are minutely pulverized, and the soil is everywhere light, mellow, and spongy; while its sandy predominance makes our soil very early. The upland soil of East Dakota cannot be surpassed for fertility and the variety and luxuriance of its vegetation.

"Your committee have been unable to get any accurate information in relation to the amount of the crops per acre, but from their own personal observation, they are of the opinion that no State or Territory surpasses Dakota in the yield of their crops per acre, and they are of the opinion the average yield of wheat per acre is 25 bushels; oats, 45; corn, between 50 and 60; potatoes, 225. All vines and garden vegetables yield bountifully. But for raising wheat, Dakota, we believe, is not equalled by any State or Territory in the Union. Our dry, pure atmosphere is what is required for the perfection of this grain; the best wheat grown in the world is the wheat grown on the Red River, within the limits of Dakota. The inhabitants of that section claim 60 bushels as an average yield per acre, and the wheat weighs from 65 to 70 pounds per bushel. Every one that has ever seen any of the Red River wheat pronounced it the finest they ever saw. And we are of the opinion that a large portion of our Territory will yield equally as well; some farmers have told your

committee of a yield of 104 bushels of potatoes from one and one-fourth bushels of seed, and corn at 100 bushels per acre.

"Dakota is the finest field in the world for stock-growing. It stands prominent above all other countries as the best for the production of grass. 'The grasses,' says Farrey, 'are proverbially in perfection only in northern and cold regions. It is in the north alone that we raise animals from meadows, and are enabled to keep them fat and in good condition without grain.' In none of the prairie districts of North America are the native grasses so abundant and nutritious as on the plains and in the valleys of Dakota. This is sufficiently proved by the countless herds of buffalo that pasture throughout the year, upon its plains, even north of the 49th parallel of latitude; a fact which suggests an equivalent capacity for the herding of domestic cattle. Horses and cattle roam during summer and winter over the prairies and through the woods, and keep fat without housing or hay. The wild grasses of Dakota are of many varieties. The blue-joint of the valleys makes the best of hay, and generally yields about three tons per acre. The gramma or buffalo grass of the upland prairies is so nutritious that horses will work all the time they are fed on it, without any grain, and keep fat. All the wild grasses of Dakota are more nutritious than any of the tame grasses; cattle become fatter by pasturing on it. When cut it shrinks much less in curing for hay. It seldom heats. There is no dust in the hay. Horses that eat it never have the heaves. The hay in appearance is green, and it smells much sweeter than tame hay. On the whole, it is superior either for pasturage or hay for horses, cattle, or sheep. Owing to the healthiness and the dryness of the climate of Dakota, sheep must do extremely well in Dakota. We have no cold sleet-storms here, that are so fatal to sheep in many countries. The Indians have always kept thousands of horses in this country, but never feed them hay in winter."

Among the animals found in and native to the Territory are the buffalo or bison, the elk, antelope, deer, grizzly bear, black bear, wolf, raccoon, and muskrat.

It is believed that the Territory is very rich in minerals. Valuable deposits of gold, silver, iron, and copper have been discovered. Coal also exists in considerable quantities, and the salt lakes in the northern part of the Territory furnish an abundant supply of salt.

The Government is similar to that of the other Territories; it was organized by Congress in March, 1861.

YANCTON, the capital, is situated on the left bank of the Missouri River, about 7 miles above the mouth of the Dakota or James River, and in the southeastern corner of the Territory. It is 60 miles northwest of Sioux City, in Iowa, the present terminus of the Chicago and Northwestern Railway. It contains about 1500 inhabitants, 2 churches, 2 schools, 1 seminary (conducted by the Episcopal Church), and a newspaper office.

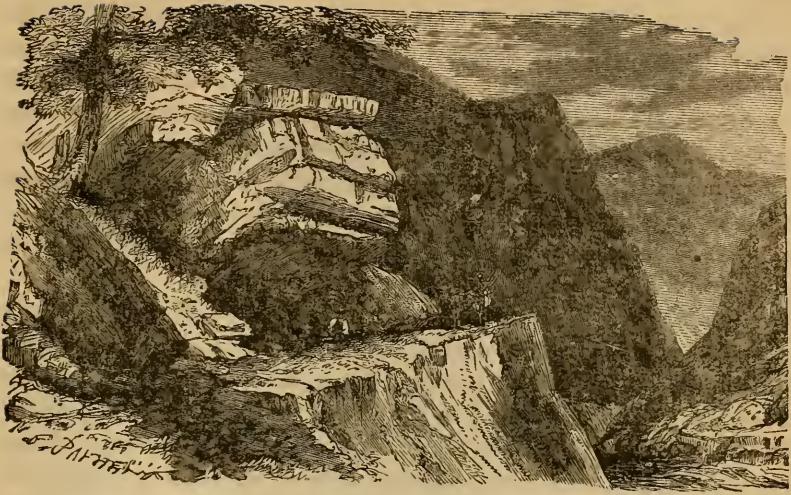
I D A H O .

Area,	96,000 Square Miles.
Population in 1870,	14,998

THE Territory of Idaho lies between 42° and 49° N. latitude, and 110° and 117° W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by British America, on the east by Montana and Wyoming Territories, on the south by Utah Territory and Nevada, and on the west by Oregon and Washington Territory. Its greatest length, from north to south, is 480 miles, and its greatest breadth, from east to west, is about 340 miles. The widest portion is below the southern boundary of Montana. North of that the Territory varies in width from 40 to 60 miles.

The surface is mountainous. The Rocky Mountains extend for 250 miles along the eastern and northeastern borders, and a curvilinear range, called the Bitter Root Mountains, continues the eastern border from the Rocky Mountain range to the northern part of the Territory. Fremont's Peak is the highest point of the Rocky Mountain range in the United States, and has an altitude of 13,570 feet. It lies on the border between Idaho and Dakota.

"The Snake River and its branches drain the whole Territory, except a portion, of about 120 miles long and 45 wide, in the extreme



A CANON IN THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS.

northern part, which is drained by Clark's Fork of the Columbia and its branches, and an irregularly-shaped portion in the southeastern corner, which is drained by Green and Bear rivers. Bear River falls into Salt Lake, and Green River empties into the Colorado. This portion of the Territory has some farming and a large amount of good grazing lands, and is very scantily supplied with wood. No mines have been discovered in it. The principal branches of the Snake River in Idaho are the Clearwater, Salmon, Payette, Boise, and many small rivers and creeks, which, uniting, form a large river, with many falls and rapids and a current of great swiftmess."

There are three lakes of considerable size in Idaho, the Cœur d'Aline, about 24 miles long and two or three wide, very irregular in form; the Pen d'Oreille, a crescent-shaped lake, about 30 miles long and 5 broad; and the Boatman, about the same length and 6 miles wide. The Pen d'Oreille and Clark's Fork are navigable for steamers for 80 miles.

The Surveyor-General of Idaho, in his Report for 1867, thus speaks of the Territory :

"The altitude of Idaho Territory, with its mountains and tablelands, renders the winters cold compared with the country lying west, but dry and healthy. The Boise, Payette, and Weiser valleys are sheltered and mild. The soil of the valleys is highly favorable to the growth of cereals and vegetation. Extensive crops are raised where

irrigation is practicable. The alkali land, mostly covered with sagebrush, has proved well adapted to the raising of grain. The soil, reported second-rate, being decomposed granite, yields the heaviest crops. The extensive table-lands are covered with wild grasses and wild rye, and are valuable for grazing. The mountains are clothed with pine and fir timber. The valleys are destitute of timber except a species of cottonwood growing along the banks of the rivers. The valleys are depending upon the mountains at a heavy cost for lumber and fuel.

"Gold is found on the head-waters of all the rivers. Rich placer mines have been profitably worked for years on the Clearwater and Salmon rivers. Extensive placer and quartz mines are found on the Boise River and its branches, embracing several districts. Many rich quartz lodes of gold and silver have been discovered and partially worked; their future development depending upon the reduced cost of transportation and other expenses, which thus far have retarded the growth and prosperity of the country. The quartz and placer mines of Owyhee county, situated in the southwest part of the Territory, have proved to be eminently rich so far as developed. Some of the ledges are being worked with valuable machinery, repaying the capital invested, though at an enormous outlay. The quantity and quality of the ore already abstracted are favorable indications of their future wealth. Several thousands of gold and silver quartz claims have been taken up and recorded, more or less prospected, but the heavy expenses under which the miners of this Territory have labored, has, in general, prevented their successful development. The near approach of the Pacific Railroad to the southern borders of the Territory will materially reduce the cost of working the mines, when the resources of the country will be more favorably brought into notice."

There are no railways in the Territory. The Northern Pacific Railway will cross Idaho from east to west when completed. The Lewis or Snake Fork of the Columbia River is navigable to Lewiston, on the western border, just above the northern boundary of Oregon. This river furnishes the usual and most convenient route for persons and goods entering Idaho.

The public school system has been in operation for several years. There are about 20 schools in the Territory. These are limited to 8 or 9 counties.

The Government is similar to that of the other Territories. The Territorial prison is situated at Boise City. It does not pay expenses.

INDIANS HUNTING BISON.





GREAT SHOSHONE FALLS.

The Territory of Idaho was organized by Congress in March, 1863, out of portions of Oregon, Washington, Nebraska, and Utah Territories. In May, 1864, the Territory of Montana was formed out of the eastern portion. The discovery of gold was the immediate cause of the settlement of the Territory. The rich deposits of the precious metal drew large numbers of settlers from California, Oregon, and the eastern settlements. In a short time the population of Idaho numbered 20,000. This soon fell off, however, as the mining excitement led the more adventurous portion to other places. At present the population consists largely of settlers, who have come into the Territory with the intention of remaining there. The Territory is growing rapidly, and its permanent prosperity seems now placed on an assured basis.

BOISE CITY, or BOISÉ CITY, the capital, is situated on the east side of the Boise River, at the head of the fertile valley of the same name, about 393 miles from Salt Lake City, in Utah. It has a beautiful location, is well laid out, and is one of the best built of the frontier towns. Nearly all the travellers and supplies for the Boise Basin pass through it; hence it is a great staging centre. It is the principal commercial town in the southern part of the Territory, being situated between the Owyhee and Boise Mines. It contains about 2500 or 3000 inhabitants, several churches and schools, and 3 newspaper offices.

THE INDIAN TERRITORY.

Area, 68,991 Square Miles.
Population in 1870, about 17,000.

THE Indian Territory consists of a tract of country set apart by the United States as a permanent home for the Indian tribes removed thither from east of the Mississippi as well as those native to the Territory. It lies between $33^{\circ} 30'$ and 37° N. latitude; and between $94^{\circ} 30'$ and 103° W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Kansas, on the east by Missouri and Arkansas, on the south by Texas, and on the west by Texas and New Mexico.

The Territory is drained by the Arkansas and Red rivers and their tributaries. The Arkansas and Red are navigable for steamers for a part of their course, but the tributaries are too shallow for navigation.

The greater part of the Territory is still in a wild state, and abounds in game. Vast herds of buffaloes and wild horses roam over its prairies. The antelope, deer, prairie dog, wild turkeys, and grouse are found.

The United States Government has military stations at Fort Gibson, on the Arkansas, Fort Townson, on the Red, and Fort Washita, on the Red River, but the Federal Government exercises no authority over the Indians except for the punishment of certain crimes committed by them against the whites. For this purpose, the Indian Territory is annexed to the Judicial Districts of the States of Missouri and Arkansas, that the offending Indians may be brought to trial before the United States Circuit and District Courts when sitting in those districts. The Indians are allowed to live under their own laws, and to follow their own customs and modes of life. Each tribe has its lands assigned and secured to it by the United States. Several efforts have been made to organize the Territory. In the latter part of 1870, a general council of the tribes was held at Ockmulgee, at which a Constitution for the Territory, similar in its provisions and requirements to the Constitution of the United States, was adopted by an almost unanimous vote, subject to ratification by the people. This Constitution provides for a government and political system similar to our own, and confines its privileges to the Indian tribes of the Territory. In the new system the various Indian nations correspond with the States of our own Confederation.

The principal tribes now occupying the Territory are the Choctaws, Chickasaws, Creeks, Seminoles, Cherokees, and Osages. Some of these tribes—the Cherokees being the most improved—have made great advances in civilization, and have their towns, farms, schools, and churches, whilst others are fast falling into vagrancy. The United States Government holds in trust for these Indians the sum of \$1,600,000, yielding an annual income of over \$100,000. The tribes have ceded nearly 40,000,000 acres of their lands to the United States, and the organization of the Territory would open these to settlement. The chiefs oppose the movement.

MONTANA.

Area,	143,766 Square Miles.
Population in 1870,	20,594

THE Territory of Montana, with the exception of a small portion in the southwest, lies between 45° and 49° N. latitude, and 104° and 116° W. longitude. Its extreme length, from east to west, is about 560 miles, and its extreme breadth, from north to south, about 320 miles. This is at the projection in the southeast portion. In other parts its average breadth is about 275 miles. It is bounded on the north by British America, on the east by Dakota Territory, on the south by Wyoming and Idaho Territories, and on the west by Idaho.

“The surface is generally mountainous. The great Rocky Mountain range extends across the Territory. Commencing at the northern boundary this range extends for a distance of about 200 miles in a south-southeast direction, and then describes a great curve towards the west until it touches the border of Idaho. From this point it extends along the southwestern boundary of Montana for a distance of nearly 200 miles. The Bitter Root Mountains also form a part of the western boundary. Minor chains of mountains occur in different parts of the Territory. The long valley of the Yellow Stone River, in the eastern part of Montana, is reported to be fertile, and to be bordered on one or two sides by grand walls of mountain. The valleys of the extensive region, between the Yellowstone and the Missouri, are said to be liberally supplied with running water and forest trees, among which the pine and cedar are to be found. The pine, fir, and cedar also abound on the Rocky Mountains and Bitter Root Mountains. ‘The country bordering on the Jefferson Fork, the Gallatin Fork, and the Madison Fork of the Missouri,’ says Captain Mullan,

'is among the most beautiful to be found west of the Mississippi. The country is a gently undulating prairie, dotted here and there with clumps of timber. All the streams are beautifully fringed with forest growth, the soil is rich, climate mild and invigorating, and all the elements for happy homes are here to be found.' "

The principal rivers are the Missouri, the Yellowstone, and Clark's Fork of the Columbia River. The Missouri rises near the southwestern corner of the Territory, and pursues a circuitous course throughout its whole extent to the eastern border, where it passes into Dakota. About 500 miles from the source of the river, and in the western part of the central portion of the Territory, are the Great Falls of the Missouri, which rank next to those of Niagara in grandeur. They are described in the earlier pages of this work.

The climate is healthful, and, with an atmosphere devoid of humidity, is admirably calculated for those afflicted with diseases of the lungs, or any manner of rheumatic affections. The purity of the water, and the entire absence of all malarious influences, also render it well adapted to the invalid suffering from any causes whatsoever.

Professor G. C. Swallow, in 1867, thus summed up the results of his investigations of the agricultural and mineral resources of Montana :

"It certainly is one of the finest stock countries on the Continent. All the more important domestic animals and fowls do remarkably well ; horses, mules, and neat cattle are more hardy, and keep in better condition on the native grasses than they do in the States on hay and grain. As a general rule they winter well on the grass of the valleys and foot-hills without hay or grain. The valleys furnish a large area of natural meadows, whose products are equal to those of the cultivated meadows of the Middle States. Beef fattened on the native pastures is equal to the best produced in the country.

"The small grains, wheat, rye, barley, and oats, produce as large an average yield as in the most favored grain-producing States ; 50 and 60 bushels to the acre are not uncommon yields for Montana. Of the native fruits we have strawberries, raspberries, blueberries, serviceberries, choke-cherries, haws, currants, and gooseberries, and there is every reason to believe that apples, pears, cherries, plums, quinces, blackberries, raspberries, strawberries, currants, and gooseberries can be cultivated in our broad valleys as successfully as in any of the mother States.

"All the more important root crops, such as potatoes, ruta-bagas,

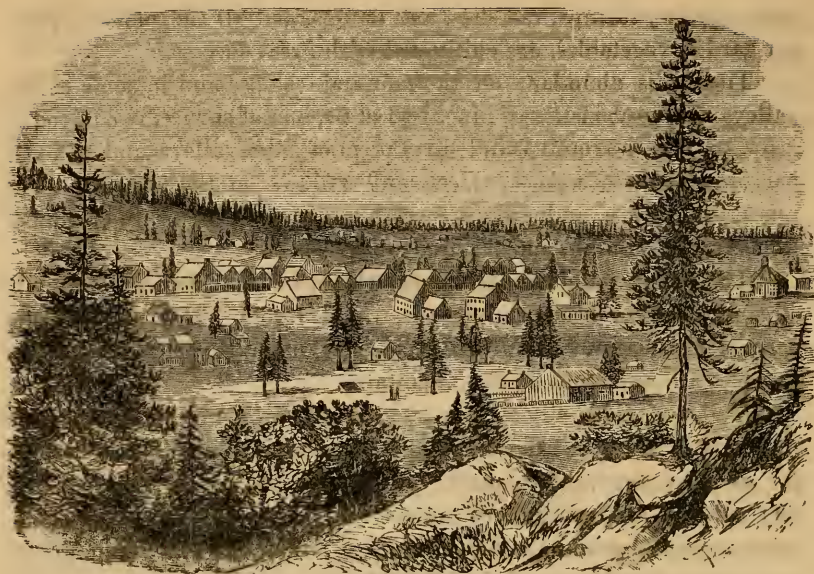
beets, carrots, turnips, radishes, and onions, and all the more important garden vegetables, are cultivated with great success.

"Timber is abundant on the mountain slopes and in some of the valleys. Five varieties of pine, two of fir, one of spruce, two of cedar, grow on the mountains and in the mountain valleys and canons; balsams, poplars, aspens, alders, and willows on the streams. The pines, firs, spruce, and cedars furnish an abundance of good timber for building, mining, and farming purposes.

"The purest waters abound everywhere, in cool springs, mountain streams, meadow brooks, and clear, rapid rivers. Hot and mineral springs also occur. Beautiful lakes, and magnificent waterfalls and cascades are numerous in the mountains.

"Veins of gold, silver, copper, lead, and iron are found in great numbers in nearly all the mountainous portions of the Territory. So far as discovered, they usually come to the surface on the foot-hills and sides of the valleys and canons. A large portion of these lodes are *true veins*, cutting through granite, syenite, porphyry, trap, gneiss, mica slate, hornblende slate, talcose slate, argillaceous slates, sandstone, and limestone. These veins vary in thickness, from a few inches to 50 or 60 feet. The gangue or vein rock, called *quartz* by the miners here, is very variable in character. In the gold-bearing veins it is usually a whitish quartz, more or less ferruginous—often nearly all iron. In some veins it resembles a stratified quartzite; in others it is syenitic; pyrites, hornblende, calc-spar, arsenic, antimony, copper and tellurium, are found in these veins. In the silver veins the iron, so abundant in the gold veins, is usually replaced by oxide of manganese. This mineral is sometimes so abundant as to constitute the larger portion of the gangue. The gangue in many of the copper mines is usually quartz, heavy spar, calc-spar, and brown spar, more or less commingled.

"Many thousand lodes of gold, silver, and copper have already been discovered and recorded, and a large number of them somewhat developed. It is true, as well as in all other mining regions, that a large part of the lodes discovered cannot be worked with profit by the method usually adopted in new mining countries; but many of those which cannot now be profitably worked will become valuable when experience has shown the best methods, and when labor and materials can be had at ordinary prices. But there is a very large number of large and rich lodes, which will yield large profits even at the present prices of labor and material; and there is quite a number of lodes of



A FRONTIER CITY.

both gold and silver already discovered which will rank among the largest and richest in the annals of mining.

"This, like all new mining districts, presents serious obstacles and difficulties in the way of immediate success. These are obvious to all experienced men, and are expected in all such undertakings. But all this and other hindrances to the full success of our quartz-mining operations will soon be removed. They are evils which will naturally cure themselves. Better mills are now going into operation, better lodes are bought in larger quantities, good men are employed to manage, and owners of quartz property are offering better facilities for developing their lodes; capital is turned toward this source of wealth, and our best financiers are operating in Montana mining property.

"The placer mines, though very extensive, and in some instances vastly rich, have not yielded so much as in former years. But many new and rich discoveries have been made, and large sums of money spent in conducting water to favorite localities, and we have every reason to believe that the placers will yield as many millions as in former years to those hardy toilers who have labored so faithfully and successfully in securing this 'golden harvest.'

"In conclusion, it may be stated with safety that Montana has the agricultural capacity for sustaining any population which her mines,

salubrious climate, and glorious scenery may attract to her fair land. Her mines are more numerous and more diffused than any other equal area on the globe, and they will prove as rich and yield as large profits as the most productive in this or any other country."

VIRGINIA CITY, the capital of the Territory, is situated on Alder Creek, a tributary of Jefferson's Fork of the Missouri. It is tolerably well built for a frontier city, and contained a population of 867, in 1870. It contains a school, several churches, a newspaper office, and a theatre. Stages connect it with the principal towns of the Territory.

NEW MEXICO.

Area,	121,201 Square Miles.
Population in 1870,	91,874

THE Territory of New Mexico lies between $31^{\circ} 20'$ and 37° N. latitude, and between 103° and 109° W. longitude. It is bounded on the north by Colorado, on the east by Texas and the Indian Territory, on the south by Texas and the Republic of Mexico, and on the west by Arizona Territory. Its extreme length, from north to south, is about 400 miles, and its breadth, from east to west, about 350 miles.

The greater part of the Territory consists of high table lands broken by several ranges of mountains. The Rocky Mountains pass through the central portion from north to south. The Sierra Madre range passes through the western portion, and the southern and eastern parts contain several minor ranges, which diverge from the main chain of the Rocky Mountains and pass off into Texas.

The principal river of New Mexico is the Rio Grande del Norte, which, rising in the Rocky Mountains in Colorado, flows from north to south across the Territory, between the Rocky and Sierra Madre Mountains, draining an extensive valley.

The habitable portion of the Territory is the Valley of the Rio Grande. Here the climate, owing to the great elevation of the valley, is temperate and constant. In the hotter portions of the day the mercury sometimes reaches 100°, but the nights are always cool. Some of the highest mountains are covered with perpetual snow. Between July and October there are heavy falls of rain, but the atmosphere is in spite of this very dry. The ground is parched and hard during the greater part of the year.

In consequence of this, the greater portion of the Territory is sterile. Except in a few regions nothing can be done in the way of agriculture, and in almost every portion artificial irrigation is necessary to produce the simplest crops. Many parts of the Valley of the Rio Grande, and the valleys of some of the other streams produce good crops of Indian corn, wheat, melons, grapes, apples, peaches, and apricots. The Indians on the Gila cultivate cotton, wheat, corn, melons, and vegetables by means of irrigation. Irrigation, however, cannot always be depended on, as the water source is frequently destroyed by the evaporation of the streams. The valleys of the northeast portion of the Territory afford excellent pasturage, and the table lands, though unfit for agricultural purposes, are excellent for stock raising. They produce a peculiar grass, which the dry season cures instead of rendering it worthless. Cattle, sheep, mules, and horses find this excellent winter food. The Territory will probably never attain even a respectable position as an agricultural region, but it is destined to become a prominent place for stock raising.

Only a small portion of the surface is wooded. Such hard woods as are found are of an inferior quality, and are limited in quantity.

Animals are not as prolific here as in the other Territories. Those found here are the deer, mountain sheep, wild hog, antelope, cougar, ocelot, lynx, brown bear, black bear, grizzly bear, coyote, wolf, marmot, skunk, weasel, hare, rabbit, squirrel, beaver, and elk. Wild turkeys, geese, ducks and swans, are found. The Territory also contains a venomous species of the scorpion and lizard.

It is probable that New Mexico will owe its future prosperity to its mines more than to any other source. It is said to be very rich in mineral deposits, especially in gold and silver, though very little has been done as yet towards the development of these resources. A great drawback to mining enterprises is the hostility of the Apaches, who infest a large part of the Territory. Iron is found in abundance; also gypsum; coal is found in limited quantities, and there are salt lakes in the northeast portion.



SANTA FÉ.

The Government is similar to that of the other Territories, except that in New Mexico the power of the Government is but slight. The inhabitants are wild and lawless, as a rule, and are very low down in the scale of civilization. The condition of society is similar to that in Mexico. The Roman Catholic religion is the principal faith.

SANTA FÉ, the capital, is situated on the Rio Chicito, or Santa Fé River, about 20 miles from its confluence with the Rio Grande. It is the seat of an extensive overland trade with the Missouri River. It is wretchedly built. The houses are constructed of adobe and are rarely more than one story in height. The inhabitants, with the exception of the few Americans residing or sojourning in the place, are ignorant and degraded. The place bears an evil reputation as one of the most reckless and miserable towns on the globe. In 1870, the population was 4600.

U T A H .

Area,	88,056 square miles.
Population in 1870,	86,786

THE Territory of Utah lies between 37° and 42° N. latitude, and between 109° and 114° W. longitude. Its greatest length, from north to south, is 345 miles, and its greatest breadth, from east to west, about 270 miles. It is bounded on the north by Wyoming and Idaho Territories, on the east by Wyoming and Colorado, on the south by Arizona, and on the west by Nevada.

"The Wasatch range of mountains divides the Territory diagonally northeast and southwest into two parts, the northwestern being much larger than that lying to the southward. The Wasatch range is high and rugged. Its lofty summits, covered with perpetual snow, probably have an altitude of 11,000 or 12,000 feet above the level of the sea. In a broad and elevated range, surrounded by countries rich in gold and silver, we should expect to find those metals. But, so far as is known, no range of mountains on the western coast has been found rich in precious metals that has a trend to the northeast and southwest, and it may be considered problematical whether any mines of those metals will be found of great richness in the Wasatch Mountains. On the western side of the Territory are a number of small ranges, on the Goshoot and a number of others, that contain mines of gold and silver.

"The largest river is the Colorado, one of the longest in the United States. Of its capabilities for navigation, comparatively little is known, though, so far as explored, the reports are unfavorable. Its principal branches are the Green, Grand, San Juan, and Virgin rivers. These drain the southeastern portion of the Territory. On

the north, Goose and Holmes's creeks run into Snake River, but all the interior streams empty into lakes that have no outlet to the sea. Bear River and the Jordan empty into Salt Lake, besides many large creeks and numerous smaller ones.

"Salt Lake is about 120 miles long, north and south, and 40 miles wide, and contains several islands of considerable size, some of which are partially covered with timber. A steamer is now being built for the purpose of shipping the timber from these islands for the use of Salt Lake City. The lake is subject to sudden storms, and boat navigation is sometimes dangerous. Until the present time, no serious effort has been made to test its capabilities for navigation, but there is no doubt that the trade on this lake will, at some future period, be of considerable magnitude. The water is extremely salt. An analysis shows that it contains over 22 per cent. of solid matter. It is probable the lake once had an outlet to the ocean; and from the freshwater tertiary fossils found at Bear River, and at other points, it is almost certain that it then contained fresh water. Then, also, it doubtless contained many varieties of fish, but as the water grew salt, they gradually perished; and, so far as has been observed, it has no animal life in it at present. The cause of the extreme aridity of this country lies in the fact that it is surrounded by high mountains. The Sierra Nevada on the west, the Wasatch range on the south and east, and the Rocky Mountains on the north, completely encircle it. The wind coming from any quarter has its moisture absorbed in passing over the mountains. The absence of vegetation, the effect of this extreme aridity, also aggravates the droughts. The cultivation of these valleys, by covering them with crops and trees, may cause some change in the amount of rain-fall, and it is not unlikely that in the course of years the water in Salt Lake will be permanently higher than it is now. As the small rain-fall at present is due to the environment of mountains, the inference is, that in former times they did not exist, and that this lake is older than the mountains; this conclusion appears to be warranted by our present knowledge of the facts.

"Utah Lake, the source of the Jordan, is almost in the shape of a right-angled triangle, about 30 miles long, and 20 wide. The water is fresh. There are several other lakes, as Little Salt, Sevier Lake, and Goshoot."

The Territory is generally an elevated, mountainous, and barren region. The waters of the Great Basin have no apparent outlet, and either discharge themselves into the lakes already mentioned, or sink into the sands of the desert.

Agricultural pursuits are extensively carried on by means of the best system of irrigation on the Continent. "Farmers in the Eastern States might learn much here that would be valuable to them. From a report of the Deseret Agricultural Society of January 11th, 1866, it appears that 'there have been constructed 277 main canals, in length amounting to 1043 miles, 102 rods, at a mean width of 5 feet, 6 inches, and a mean depth of 2 feet, 2 inches, which water 153,949 acres of land, at a cost of \$1,766,939, and there is in course of construction canals at an estimated cost of \$900,000.'" The efforts of the Mormon farmers have been well repaid, and their fruits, vegetables, etc., will compare favorably with those of any portion of the country.

Iron is found in large quantities in Iron and Beaver counties. Gold, silver, copper, zinc, and lead also exist, but it is believed that the deposits are small. Coal, both anthracite and bituminous, is found in limited quantities. Salt is yielded from the waters of Salt Lake in unlimited quantities. It is becoming an article of export. Soda exists in vast beds in many parts of the Territory.

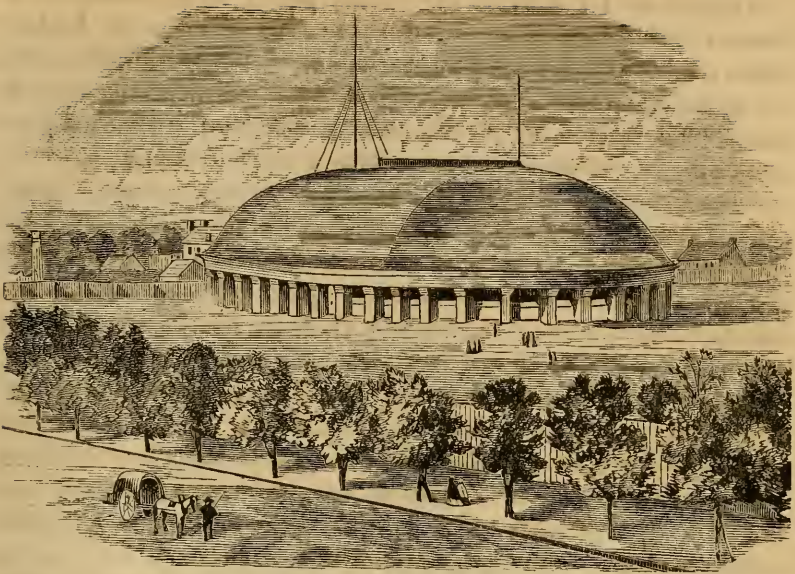
The animals native to the Territory are the elk, deer, antelope, grizzly bear, mountain sheep, fox, and wolf. The lakes abound in water fowl, and the mountain streams in excellent trout and salmon.

The people of the Territory have gradually built up a system of manufactures which does much to supply their immediate wants. They make their own cloth, grind their own flour, and provide many articles of domestic use. Besides its local commerce, Utah carries on an active trade with the settlements in Colorado, Nevada, Idaho, and Montana, off the line of the Pacific Railway.

The Pacific Railway crosses the northern portion of the Territory from east to west. Ogden, a few miles north of Salt Lake City, is the eastern terminus of the Central Pacific, and the western terminus of the Union Pacific Railways.

There is a system of public schools, and the Mormons have established a University of Deseret. The education provided by the Mormon schools, however, is said to be arranged with a view to keeping the children within the fold of the Mormon faith.

Utah was originally a part of Upper California. In 1848, it was ceded to the United States by Mexico, and, in 1847, was settled by the Mormons, who had been expelled from Nauvoo, in Illinois. They settled on the borders of Salt Lake, and founded Great Salt Lake City. They set up a Provisional form of Government, and gave to



THE TABERNACLE, SALT LAKE CITY.

the Territory the name of the State of Deseret. In 1850, this form of government was abandoned, and the Territory of Utah was organized.

The Territorial Government is similar to that of other Territories ; but, besides this, the Mormon Church has a complete establishment of its own, of which Brigham Young, the Prophet, is the head or President. The Mormons, as a rule, pay little heed to the Territorial Government, but look to Young and the Twelve Apostles, as the chief dignitaries of the Church are called, in all things. The laws of the United States are executed with difficulty, and a vast amount of trouble has been given the Federal Government by the hostility and mutinous conduct of the Mormons. Just before the civil war, it became necessary to send an army into the Territory to compel obedience to the laws.* It is believed, however, that the completion of the Pacific Railway will render the task of enforcing obedience to the laws comparatively easy for the General Government.

* The reader is referred to the numerous works on Utah and the Mormons, for an account of the history, religious belief, and political system of the Mormons. The limits of this work forbid such a narrative here.

GREAT SALT LAKE CITY, the capital of the Territory, is situated in Salt Lake County, on the east bank of the river Jordan, which connects Utah Lake with the Great Salt Lake, about 22 miles east of the latter lake, and 4200 feet above the level of the sea. It was laid out in July, 1847. In 1870, it contained a population of about 17,000. William Hepworth Dixon thus sketches the city :

"The site of the new city was laid between the two great lakes, Utah Lake and Salt Lake,—like the town of Interlachen, between Brienz and Thun,—though the distances are here much greater, the two inland seas of Utah being real seas when compared against the two charming lakelets in the Bernese Alps. A river, now called the Jordan, flows from Utah into Salt Lake ; but it skirts the town only, and, lying low down in the valley, is useless, as yet, for irrigation. Young has a plan for constructing a canal from Utah Lake to the city, by way of the lower benches of the Wasatch chain ; a plan which will cost much money, and fertilize enormous sweeps of barren soil. If Salt Lake City is left to extend itself in peace, the canal will soon be dug ; and the bench, now covered with stones, with sand, and a little wild sage, will be changed into vineyards and gardens. The city, which covers, we are told, three thousand acres of land, between the mountains and the river, is laid out in blocks of ten acres each. Each block is divided into lots of one acre and a quarter ; this quantity of land being considered enough for an ordinary cottage and garden.

"As yet, the temple is unbuilt ; the foundations are well laid, of massive granite ; and the work is of a kind that bids fair to last ; but the Temple block is covered with temporary buildings and erections—the old tabernacle, the great bowery, the new tabernacle, the temple foundations. A high wall encloses these edifices ; a poor wall, without art, without strength ; more like a mud wall than the great work which surrounds the temple platform on Moriah. When the works are finished, the enclosure will be trimmed and planted, so as to offer shady walks and a garden of flowers.

"The Temple block gives form to the whole city. From each side of it starts a street, a hundred feet in width, going out on the level plain, and in straight lines into space. Streets of the same width, and parallel to these, run north and south, east and west ; each planted with locust and ailantus trees, cooled by two running streams of water from the hill-side. These streets go up north, towards the bench, and nothing but the lack of people prevents them from travelling onward,



MAIN STREET, SALT LAKE CITY.



VIEW OF SALT LAKE.

south and west, to the lakes, which they already reach on paper, and in the imagination of the more fervid saints. Main street runs along the temple front ; a street of offices, of residences, and of trade. Originally, it was meant for a street of the highest rank, and bore the name of East Temple street ; upon it stood, besides the temple itself, the Council house, the Tithing office, the dwellings of Young, Kimball, Wells, the three chief officers of the Mormon Church. It was once amply watered and nobly planted ; but commerce has invaded the precincts of the modern temple, as it invaded those of the old ; and the power of Brigham Young has broken and retreated before that of the money-dealers and the venders of meat and raiment. Banks, stores, offices, hotels,—all the conveniences of modern life,—are springing up in Main street ; trees have, in many parts, been cut down for the sake of loading and unloading goods ; the trim little gardens, full of peach trees and apple trees, bowering the adobe cottages in their midst, have given way to shop-fronts and to hucksters' stalls. In the business portion, Main street is wide, dusty, unpaved, unbuilt ; a street showing the three stages through which every American city has to pass : the log shanty, the adobe cot (in places where clay and fuel can be easily obtained, this stage is one of brick), and the stone house. Many of the best houses are still of wood ; more are of adobe, the sun-dried bricks once used in Babylonia and Egypt, and still used everywhere in Mexico and California ; a few are of red stone, and even granite. The temple is being built of granite from a neighboring hill. The Council house is of red stone, as are many of the great magazines, such as Godbe's, Jennings', Gilbert's, Clawson's ; magazines in which you find everything for sale, as in a Turkish bazaar, from candles and champagne, down to gold dust, cotton prints, tea, pen-knives, canned meats, and mouse-traps. The smaller shops, the ice cream houses, the saddlers, the barbers, the restaurants, the hotels, and all the better class of dwellings, are of sun-dried bricks ; a good material in this dry and sunny climate ; bright to the eye, cosy in winter, cool in summer ; though such houses are apt to crumble away in a shower of rain. A few shanties, remnants of the first emigration, still remain in sight. Lower down, towards the south, where the street runs off into infinite space, the locust and ailantus trees reappear.

“In its busy, central portion, nothing hints the difference between Main street in Salt Lake City, and the chief thoroughfare, say, of Kansas, Leavenworth, and Denver, except the absence of grog-shops, lager beer saloons, and bars. The hotels have no bars, the streets

have no betting-houses, no gaming-tables, no brothels, no drinking-places. In my hotel—'The Salt Lake'—kept by Colonel Little, one of the Mormon elders, I cannot buy a glass of beer, a flask of wine. No house is now open for the sale of drink (though the Gentiles swear they will have one open in a few weeks), and the table of the hotel is served at morning, noon, and night, with tea. In this absence of public solicitation to sip either claret-cobbler, whiskey-bourbon, Tom and Jerry; mint-julep, eye-opener, fix-up, or any other Yankee deception in the shape of liquor—the city is certainly very much unlike Leavenworth and the River towns, where every third house in a street appears to be a drinking den. Going past the business quarter, we return to the first ideas of Young in planting his new home; the familiar lines of acacias grow by the becks; the cottages stand back from the road-side twenty or thirty feet; the peach trees, apple trees, and vines, tricked out with roses and sun-flowers, smother up the roofs.

"Right and left from Main street, crossing it, parallel to it, lie a multitude of streets, each like its fellow; a hard, dusty road, with tiny becks, and rows of locust, cotton-wood, and philarea, and the building-land laid down in blocks. In each block stands a cottage, in the midst of fruit trees. Some of these houses are of goodly appearance as to size and style, and would let for high rentals in the Isle of Wight. Others are mere cots of four or five rooms, in which the polygamous families, should they ever quarrel, would find it difficult to form a ring and fight. In some of these orchards you see two, three houses; pretty Swiss cottages, like many in St. John's Wood, as to gable, roof, and paint: these are the dwellings of different wives. 'Whose houses are these?' we ask a lad in East Temple street, pointing to some pretty-looking villas. 'They belong,' said he, 'to brother Kimball's family.' Here, on the bench, in the highest part of the city, is Elder Hiram Clawson's garden; a lovely garden, red with delicious peaches, plums, and apples, on which, through the kindness of his youngest wife, we have been hospitably fed during our sojourn with the Saints; a large house stands in front, in which live his first and second wives, with their nurseries of twenty children. But what is yon dainty white bower in the corner, with its little gate and its smother of roses and creepers? That is the house of the youngest wife, Alice, a daughter of Brigham Young. She has a nest of her own, apart from the other women,—a nest in which she lives with her four little boys, and where she is supposed to have as much of her own way with her lord as the daughter of a Sultan enjoys in the

harem of a Pasha. Elder Naisbit, one of the Mormon poets, an English convert to the faith, as it is in Joseph, lives with his two wives and their brood of young children, on the high ground opposite to Elder Clawson, in a very pretty mansion, something like a cottage on the Under Cliff. Much of the city is only green glade and orchard waiting for the people who are yet to come and fill it with the pride of life.

"In First South street stand the theatre and the City Hall, both fine structures, and for Western America remarkable in style. The City Hall is used as head-quarters of police, and as a court of justice. The Mormon police are swift and silent, with their eyes in every corner, their grip on every rogue. No fact, however slight, appears to escape their notice. A Gentile friend of mine, going through the dark streets at night towards the theatre, spoke to a Mormon lady of his acquaintance whom he overtook; next day a gentleman called at his hotel, and warned him not to speak with a Mormon woman in the dark streets unless her father should be with her. In the winter months there are usually 700 or 800 miners in Salt Lake City, young Norse gods of the Denver stamp; every man with a bowie-knife in his belt, a revolver in his hand, clamoring for beer and whiskey, for gaming-tables and lewd women, comforts which are strictly denied to them by these Saints. The police have all these violent spirits to repress; that they hold them in decent order with so little bloodshed is the wonder of every Western Governor and Judge. William Gilpin, Governor elect of Colorado, and Robert Wilson, sheriff of Denver and justice of the peace, have nothing but praise to give these stern and secret, but most able and effective, ministers of police.

"With this court of justice we have scarcely made acquaintance. A few nights ago we met the judge, who kindly asked us to come and see his court; but while we were chatting in his ante-room, before the cases were called, some one whispered in his ear that we were members of the English bar, on which he slipped out of sight, and adjourned his court. This judge, when he is not sitting on the bench, is engaged in vending drugs across a counter in Main street; and as we know where to find him in his store, we sometimes drop in for soda-water and a cigar; but we have not yet been able to fix a time for seeing his method of administering justice at Salt Lake.

"The city has two sulphur springs, over which Brigham Young has built wooden shanties. One bath is free. The water is refreshing and relaxing, the heat 92 degrees.

"No beggar is seen in the streets; scarcely ever a tipsy man; and

the drunken fellow, when you see one, is always either a miner or a soldier—of course a Gentile. No one seems poor. The people are quiet and civil, far more so than is usual in these western parts. From the presence of trees, of water, and of cattle, the streets have a pastoral character, seen in no other city of the mountains and the plains. Here, standing under the green locust trees, is an ox come home for the night; yonder is a cow at the gate, being milked by a child. Light mountain wagons stand about, and the sun-burnt emigrants, who have just come in from the prairies, thankful for shade and water, sit under the acacias, and dabble their feet in the running creeks.

“More than all other streets, perhaps, Main street, as the business quarter, offers picture after picture to an artist’s eye; most of all when an emigrant train is coming in from the plains. Such a scene is before me now; for the train which we passed in the gorge above Bear River, has just arrived, with sixty wagons, 400 bullocks, 600 men, women, and children, all English and Welsh. The wagons fill the street; some of the cattle are lying down in the hot sun; the men are eager and excited, having finished their long journey across the sea, across the States, across the prairies, across the mountains; the women and little folks are scorched and wan; dirt, fatigue, privation, give them a wild, unearthly look; and you would hardly recognize in this picturesque and ragged group the sober Monmouth farmer, the clean Woolwich artisan, the smart London smith. Mule teams are being unloaded at the stores. Miners from Montana and Idaho, in huge boots and belts, are loafing about. A gang of Snake Indians, with their long hair, their scant drapery, and their proud reserve, are cheapening the dirtiest and cheapest lots. Yon fellow in the broad sombrero, dashing up the dust with his wiry little horse, is a New Mexican; here comes a heavy Californian swell; and there, in the blue uniform, go two officers from the camp.

“The air is wonderfully pure and bright. Rain seldom falls in the valley, though storms occur in the mountains almost daily; a cloud coming up in the western hills, rolling along the crests, and threatening the city with a deluge; but, when breaking into wind and showers, it seems to run along the hill-tops into the Wasatch chain, and sail away eastward into the snowy range.”

Three newspapers are published in the city, one of which is the organ of the Mormon Church.

Besides the capital, the principal towns of Utah are, Provo, Ogden, Brownsville, Franklin, Springville, Nephi, Stockton, and Payson.

WASHINGTON.

Area,	69,994 Square Miles.
Population in 1870,	23,925

WASHINGTON TERRITORY embraces the extreme northwestern portion of the Great Republic. It lies between $45^{\circ} 33'$ and 49° N. latitude, and between 117° and $124^{\circ} 43'$ W. longitude. Its extreme length, from east to west, is about 360 miles, and its extreme breadth, from north to south, about 235 miles. It is bounded on the north by British Columbia and the Strait of San Juan de Fuca (by the latter of which it is separated from Vancouver's Island), on the east by Idaho, on the south by Oregon, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean.

The western half and parts of the southeastern portion of the Territory are mountainous. These mountains being continuations of the ranges which have been described in Oregon. The Cascade Range extends entirely across the Territory, from north to south, dividing it into two unequal portions; the larger and less rugged being the eastern portion. In this range occur, within the limits of the Territory, the lofty peaks of Mount Rainier, 12,300 feet high, Mount St. Helen and Mount Adams, each about 9500 feet high, and Mount Baker, 10,700 feet high. These are all covered with perpetual snow. West of the Cascade Range are the Coast Mountains, running parallel with and but a short distance from the Pacific Ocean. They extend from the Strait of San Juan de Fuca across the Territory into Oregon. Mount Olympus, 8150 feet high, is the principal peak.

The Strait of San Juan de Fuca forms a part of the northern boundary, and separates Washington from Vancouver's Island. It also affords water communication between the Pacific Ocean and Admiralty Inlet and Puget Sound, a large bay extending southward into

the Territory for 70 miles from the Gulf of Georgia. These are navigable for ships of the largest size. Gray's Harbor, on the Pacific, at the mouth of the Chehalis River, is about 20 miles long, and has about 20 feet of water on the bar at low tide.

Cape Flattery, at the entrance of the Strait of San Juan de Fuca, and Cape Disappointment, at the mouth of the Columbia River, are the principal capes. There are no important islands on the coast. The Isle of Grief, 40 miles south of Cape Flattery, is the largest. Whidby's Island, in Admiralty Inlet, is noted for its deer. It is well timbered, but water is scarce. The Arroo Islands, north of it, possess valuable fisheries. Lake Chelan, in the north-central part of the Territory, is the largest lake. It is 33 miles long.

The principal rivers are the Columbia, and its two branches, the Clark's and Lewis's Forks, the Spokane, the Okanagan, the Yakima, the Chehalis, the Skogit, and the Cowlitz. The Columbia enters the northeastern part of the Territory from British Columbia, and at first flows southwest. Just below the 48th parallel of latitude, it turns westward and pursues a generally westward course to the 120th meridian of longitude, where it abruptly turns to the southeast, and flows in this general direction to the 46th degree of latitude, when it turns once more to the westward, and flows in that general direction to the Pacific Ocean. From the last turn mentioned it divides Washington from Oregon. It is navigated by a daily line of steamers. The Lewis's Fork forms a part of the eastern boundary of the Territory, separating it from Idaho. At Lewiston it turns to the southwest, and flows to the Columbia. The Chehalis flows into Gray's Harbor; the Skogit into Puget Sound; and the others into the Columbia. These rivers all rise on the summit of the snowy mountains, and are subject to sudden freshets. Their rapids afford first-class water-power.

The climate of Washington resembles that of Oregon. In the western portion of the Territory it is mild, there being scarcely any winter at all in this region. "Properly speaking, there are but two seasons, the dry and the rainy. The grades of temperature, and the accompaniments which in other countries of the same latitude ascribe the features and title to the four seasons, spring, summer, autumn, and winter, are here in great measure obliterated, or at least so dimly marked that the seasons imperceptibly run into each other, and lose their distinctive line of division. It is not unusual for the three winter months to be mild, without snow or ice, the grass growing meanwhile.

In February, the weather may occur mild and genial as May, to be succeeded in March or April with our coldest weather. In July and August, days in some portions of which the maximum temperature will reach 90° or 100°, are sometimes followed by cold nights, occasionally accompanied by heavy frost. The rainy season proper begins late in October or early in November, and may be said to continue till the ensuing April. It frequently happens that after the first rains weeks of weather similar to Indian summer occur, and it is seldom that one or other of the months of January, February, or March does not prove continuously mild and clear. The summers of this Territory are unsurpassed in the world. While many days are exceedingly warm, the nights are always cool and refreshing, as if specially intended for wholesome sleeping. In the winter months, six in number, rains prevail. No disappointment should be felt if falling weather occurred some part of each 24 hours, and yet many bright sunshiny days relieve the long-continued rainy season of Washington Territory."

"The soil of all the prairie lands, with the exception of those directly around Puget Sound, is exceedingly fertile. Those of the Sound are of a sandy, gravelly nature, not readily cultivated, but producing enormous fir and cedar trees. The soil on the mountains is generally very rich; but the dense growth of forest deters the emigrant from attempting clearings on a large extent, as the fine, fertile plains and prairie offer far greater inducements. Fruits of various kinds, particularly apples, can be cultivated very readily, and in the greatest perfection. Indian corn does not thrive well, as the seasons are not hot enough; but wheat, barley, oats, and potatoes yield the most abundant crops, of the finest quality. The potatoes, in particular, are surpassingly fine. The wheat grown on the Columbia, called Oregon wheat, is known for its superior excellence.

"Although the Territory is a very mountainous country, yet there are many immense plains and prairies; and, by reference to the map, it will be seen that innumerable streams, like veins, permeate the whole region, and each of them, from the largest to the smallest, flows in its course through rich and fertile plains, of various sizes, lying between the mountains. Governor Stevens, in January, 1854, writing of the Territory, says of the waters of Puget Sound, and the adjacent ones of Hood's Canal, Admiralty Inlet, and Foca Straits, 'that their maritime advantages are very great, in affording a series of harbors

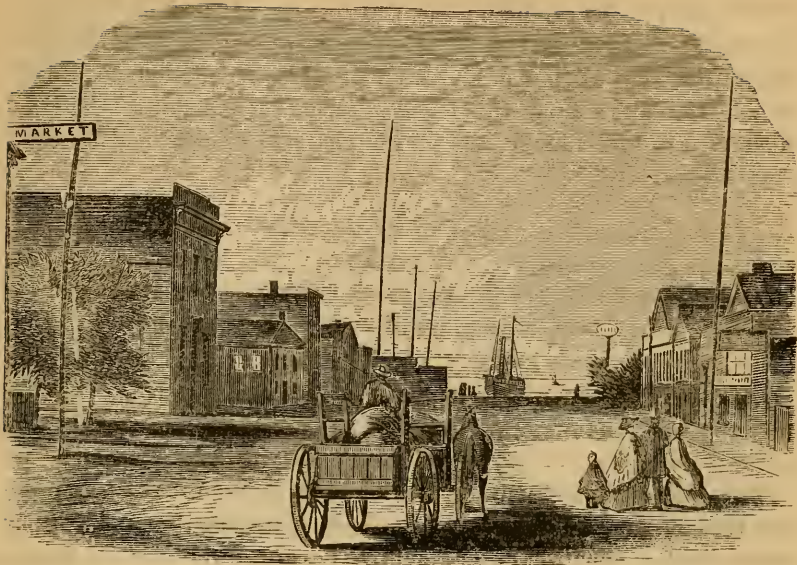
almost unequalled in the world for capacity, safety, and facility of access, and they are in the immediate neighborhood to what are now the best whaling grounds of the Pacific. That portion of Washington Territory, lying between the Cascade Mountains and the ocean, although equalling, in richness of soil and ease of transportation, the best lands of Oregon, is heavily timbered, and time and labor are required for clearing its forests and opening the earth to the production of its fruits. The great body of the country, on the other hand, stretching eastward from that range to the Rocky Mountains, while it contains many fertile valleys and much land suitable to the farmer, is yet more especially a grazing country—one which, as its population increases, promises, in its cattle, its horses, and, above all, its wool, to open a vast field to American enterprise. But, in the meantime, the staple of the land must continue to be the one which Nature herself has planted, in the inexhaustible forests of fir, of spruce, and of cedar. Either in furnishing manufactured timber, or spars of the first description for vessels, Washington Territory is unsurpassed by any portion of the Pacific coast.' ”

The timber of the Territory is like that found in California and Oregon. The giant fir grows here, often attaining a height of 300 feet, and a thickness of from 8 to 12 feet. The other trees are the spruce, maple, hemlock, cedar, oak, ash, alder, and willow. These are all of the finest and most useful species.

The forests of the Territory are plentifully stocked with game. The animals, native to this region, are the elk, deer, bear, fox, otter, beaver, muskrat, and rabbit. The native birds are the swan, wild goose, brant, gull, duck, eagle, grouse, pheasant, partridge, woodcock, hawk, raven, and robin. The waters of the Territory swarm with fish, among which are the cod, mackerel, halibut, herring, flounder, oyster, crab, lobster, and clam. The Columbia and its tributaries are famous for their fine salmon fisheries, which are among the most extensive in the world.

The commerce of the Territory consists principally in the export of lumber, particularly of masts and ship timber. The masts and spars produced in this Territory are said to be the best in the world. The amount of timber exported from Puget Sound is estimated at nearly \$2,000,000 annually. Numerous saw mills are engaged in preparing lumber for domestic use and for exportation. The assessed value of property in the Territory, in 1869, was \$7,843,239.

The mineral resources of the Territory have hardly been satisfac-



STREET IN OLYMPIA.

torily ascertained yet. Gold has been found on the Columbia River, and in the northeastern part of the Territory. Coal is found in apparently inexhaustible quantities west of the Cascade Range, along the Columbia and the rivers emptying into the Pacific, and near the Strait of San Juan de Fuca. It is believed that there is coal enough in Washington to supply the wants of the Pacific coast for generations to come.

The public school system is the best of any of the Territories. The schools have been in operation a number of years, and are doing a noble work for the children of the Territory. There are between 50 and 60 public schools in the Territory, besides several private schools. All are well attended. The University of Washington is located at Seattle, in King county. It was established in 1862. The general Government has endowed it with 46,080 acres of unoccupied land, which it is believed, will create a fund of at least \$75,000. There are about 10 public libraries in the Territory, and 9 newspapers are published there.

The Territory of Washington was organized in March, 1853, up to which time it formed a part of Oregon.

OLYMPIA, the capital of the Territory, is situated in Thurston county, on the east side of Tenalquet's River, at its entrance into Puget Sound. It lies at the head of ship navigation on Puget Sound, 150 miles from the Pacific Ocean. It contains the State House, Territorial library, several churches and schools, and 5 newspaper offices.

W Y O M I N G.

Area, about 88,000 Square Miles.
Population in 1870, 9,418

THE Territory of Wyoming lies between 41° and 45° N. latitude, and between 104° and 112° W. longitude. Its extreme length, from east to west, is about 390 miles, and its breadth, from north to south, about 275 miles. It is bounded on the north by Montana, on the east by Dakota and Nebraska, on the south by Colorado and Utah, and on the west by Utah, Idaho, and Montana.

A large part of the Territory is mountainous. The Rocky Mountains cross the western part from northwest to southeast. The Rattlesnake and Big Horn Mountains occupy a considerable part of the northern and western parts, and the Black Hills lie along the eastern border and extend into Dakota.

The principal river is the North Fork of the Platte, which rises on the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains and pursues a generally eastward course into Nebraska. The Gallatin Fork of the Missouri, the Yellowstone and its tributaries, and the Little Missouri, take their rise in the northern part of the Territory, and the northeastern portion is drained by the headwaters of the Shycenne and its branches.

Much of the land of Wyoming is suited to cultivation. Other sections, however, suffer from a scarcity of water. The whole Territory is well supplied with timber, and in the southern portion the supply is inexhaustible. The pine, spruce, hemlock, and cedar, are the principal trees. The Territory offers superior advantages for stock raising, the prairies being covered with a spontaneous growth of an excellent and nutritious grass.

The climate is healthful and delightful. The winters are mild and



PRAIRIE DOG CITY.

open, and in many parts, from November to April, the cattle can be kept without shelter, and find excellent food in the standing grass of the prairies.

Gold has been found in considerable quantities within 25 miles of the Pacific Railway. Immense beds of iron and coal have been discovered within a short distance of the same road. Lead and copper are also found in some portions of the Territory, and others contain valuable oil wells, while lime and gypsum are abundant. It is believed that in the course of a few years Wyoming will be one of the principal mining regions of the country. The Pacific Railway offers unusual facilities for prompt communication with the Eastern markets.

The country south of the North Park of the Platte is the only part settled as yet. The Pacific Railway passes almost through the centre of this portion, and is doing much towards improving and settling it.

The government is similar to that of the other Territories. In Wyoming women possess the right of suffrage, and the right to sit on juries. A grand jury, consisting of men and women, was empanelled at Laramie City on the 7th of March, 1870. Women also have the right to hold office. At the Territorial election of September 7, 1870, the women very generally voted. Women were nomi-

nated by the Republican party at Cheyenne for the offices of county clerk and school superintendent, but were defeated with the rest of the local ticket.

The Territory of Wyoming was organized on the 25th of July, 1868, out of portions of Dakota, Idaho, and Utah, the larger part consisting of the western portion of Dakota.

CHEYENNE, the capital, and largest and most important town in the Territory, has now a population of from 3000 to 5000. Much of it is "floating," and the population of the place varies more than that of most mining towns. It is situated on the Union Pacific Railway, 516 miles from Omaha, and is a place of considerable trade. Two newspapers are published here. "The first stake was driven at Cheyenne on the 13th of July, 1867, and in one month there was a town of 8000 inhabitants on the spot. These were, however, made up in a large measure of adventurers and disreputable characters. No sooner was a new station of the Pacific Railway established at Laramie than a large part of this population departed from Cheyenne, but the more respectable portion remained, and a permanent city has been founded."

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES.

One of the most important achievements of the American nation is its system of free public education, by which the precious gift of knowledge is brought within the reach of all classes of the people, and by means of which the humblest citizen may obtain for his children the advantages which in other countries are enjoyed only by the richer and aristocratic classes. This system has been the object of much discussion of late years, and is commonly regarded in this country as the basis of our prosperity. It will be interesting, therefore, to glance at its history and examine some of its results.

The free education of every child in the community at the cost of the public at large is an American idea. In no ancient country was there any provision for the education of all classes. The nearest approach to this was in Sparta under the system established by Lycurgus. The education of the Spartan youth was furnished at the expense of the State, it is true, but it was chiefly physical; the object being to render the men of the country invincible in battle. Even this system was confined to the aristocratic class. The great mass of the people were serfs, and were designedly kept in ignorance and poverty in order that they might be the more easily ruled by the nobles. In Rome schools were abundant, but they also were restricted to the patricians and the wealthier plebeians. In none of the ancient States were the common people regarded as of sufficient importance to be entitled to the benefits of education. They were simply hewers of wood and drawers of water for their aristocratic masters, and were looked upon as little better than the beasts of the field.

It was not until Christianity became the controlling power of the world that the duty of educating the people as a whole was recognized or taught. The Church of Christ has always been a foe to ignorance, and has at all times branded it as the prolific mother of vice and crime. As soon, therefore, as they were in a position to do so, the bishops and priests began to impress upon their people the *duty* of teaching the young of all classes. The great and the rich would always find the means of education open to them, but the poor and humble had no such advantages, and the church at once constituted herself their instructor. In the year 529 the Council of Vaison recommended the founding of public schools in every Christian land, in which all persons might receive instruction. It is true that the recommendation of the Council was not generally observed, and that the clergy as a whole did not carry out the designs of the church with respect to education; but it is also true that the only schools in existence during those dark ages, in which the poor scholar could find the means of slaking his thirst for knowledge, were those kept open by the church.

When Charlemagne came to the throne, at the end of the eighth century, the world was sunk in ignorance. In spite of his love of war and power, his sensual pleasures, and great ambition, his vigorous and comprehensive mind readily appreciated the importance of knowledge to a people, and he resolved that his own should possess it. At the age of forty-five he began to atone for the deficiencies in his own neglected education by commencing a regular course of study under the learned monk Alcuin. "He established," says Russell, "schools in the cathedrals and principal abbeys, for teaching writing, arithmetic, grammar, and church music; certainly no very elevated sciences, yet considerable at a time when many dignified ecclesiastics could not subscribe the canons of those councils in which they sat as members, and when it was deemed a sufficient qualification for a priest to be able to read the Gospels and understand the Lord's Prayer." The clergy being the most appropriate teachers,

Charlemagne endeavored to make them more careful in the discharge of their duties. He embraced all classes of the clergy in his vigilant circumspection, and was especially anxious that the lower clergy, who were most immediately in contact with the common people, should qualify themselves to be their instructors. In one of his edicts upon this subject he ordained that, "if, after the repeated admonitions of their bishop to improve the poverty of their understandings by study, they should still show no traces of amendment, their ignorance should not only be punished with the loss of their office, but of whatever ecclesiastical preferment they held."

By a capitular of 789, and by several successive ordinances, the bishops were ordered to establish two sorts of schools in their respective dioceses. Infant schools were to be established, in which reading and writing were to be taught. Others of a higher grade were to be opened in the cathedrals and monasteries, in which the arts of music, grammar, logic, and rhetoric were to be taught. The instruction afforded in these schools was to be gratuitous. In A. D. 800 the Synod of Mentz ordered that schools should be established by the parochial priests in every town and village, that "the little children of all the faithful should learn letters from them. Let them receive and teach these with the utmost charity, that they themselves may shine as stars forever. Let them receive no remuneration from their scholars, unless what the parents, through charity, may voluntarily offer."

"Over the progress of the young scholars Charlemagne watched with a degree of attention not to be expected from the multiplicity of his public concerns; and he took great delight in examining, with the masters, their different compositions. Having discovered, upon some remarkable occasion, that the children of the poorer classes of the people, whom he had caused to be educated among those of the nobles, left the latter far behind in their studies, he applauded their proficiency, and declared that his favors should be exclusively bestowed on them. Then turning to their high-born fellow-students, he addressed them in words which evinced his fixed determination to stimulate and reward talents, even if they should be deduced from the lowest origin. 'It is evident,' says he, 'that you rest your claims to promotion solely upon the merits of your ancestors. Know, therefore, that they have received their recompense, and that the State renounces all obligations, except to those who are capable of promoting her interests and honor by their abilities.'"

But Charlemagne died, and when his strong hand was removed there was no one to guide the cause of popular education in the way he had meant it to proceed. The monks became careless; the great schools survived, but the majority of the smaller ones disappeared. In 1179 the Council of Lateran endeavored to revive the zeal of the church, and ordered that grammar schools should be established in every cathedral for the free instruction of the poor. In 1245 the Council of Lyons enlarged this ordinance and made it more binding.

It was easy, however, for councils to enact decrees, but difficult to enforce them. In some countries they were entirely neglected; in others they were obeyed in the larger towns, where excellent schools existed and flourished, always under the control of the clergy. In the smaller towns and country districts the decrees of the councils were neglected. The priests were idle and careless, and the people poor and ignorant.

The common school, it will thus be seen, was the outgrowth of the Christian Church. It was designed at the outset to afford a mingled religious and secular instruction. As time passed on the more important establishments developed into the great universities and colleges of Europe. These were capable of extending their benefits but to a small number of the whole people, and while they did noble service to the cause of learning, were not able to carry out the original design of the church in

educating the masses of the people. That was left to the clergy in the common schools. Many of these schools perished, as we have stated. The instruction received at the hands of the clergy by the common people became limited to religious instruction. The priesthood came to the conclusion that so they instructed the people in the doctrines of the church, in the legends of the saints, and trained them to reverence and obey the clergy as the lawful administrators of "Holy Church," it was not necessary to teach them reading, writing, or any of the scholastic arts. Thus the object with which the church had started out was defeated by its own appointed instruments, and the very means it had designed for raising the common people out of the depths of ignorance was made the engine of sinking them lower into that abyss.

The reason is well known. The church was becoming corrupt, was neglecting its spiritual ends, and was seeking after temporal power. It was easier to fasten its yoke upon an ignorant than upon an educated people, and so it became the settled policy of the church and the priesthood to discourage and prevent the spread of knowledge among the people. So far was this policy carried that the church became the chief foe of knowledge. Its hatred of it was fanatical. The clergy, who were meant to be the teachers of the masses, became the most ignorant—with few exceptions—of the community. They pursued with a bitter hatred every friend of learning. Only the universities were safe from them. Even Pope Sylvester the Second was pursued to his grave by the fanatical hostility of the monks because of his zeal for learning. "The genius of this famous pontiff," says Mosheim, "was extensive and sublime, embracing all the branches of literature; but its more peculiar bent was turned toward mathematical studies. Mechanics, geometry, astronomy, arithmetic, and every other kind of knowledge that had the least affinity to these important sciences, were cultivated by this restorer of learning with the most ardent zeal, and not without success, as his writings abundantly testify. Nor did he stop here, but employed every method that was proper to encourage and animate others to the culture of the liberal arts and sciences. . . . Hence it was that the geometrical figures described by this mathematical pontiff were regarded by the monks as magical operations, and the pontiff himself was treated as a magician and a disciple of Satan." The monks zealously spread the story that Sylvester did not die, but was carried off by the devil, to whom he had sold himself for a number of years.

The cause of popular education languished until the dawn of the Reformation. That great movement gave it new life. The Reformers well understood that a people to be virtuous and pure must be intelligent, and they exerted themselves from the first to spread among the masses at least a plain common school education. Luther was especially active in this respect. The ignorance of the people was to him a terrible evil, and ought to be ameliorated at almost any cost. In 1526 he wrote to the Elector of Saxony: "Government, as the natural guardian of all the young, has the right to compel the people to support schools. What is necessary to the well being of a State, that should be supplied by those who enjoy the privileges of such State. Now nothing is more necessary than the training of those who are to come after us to bear rule. If the people are too poor to pay the expense, and are already burdened with taxes, then the monastic funds, which were originally given for such purposes, are to be employed in that way to relieve the people."

Melancthon gave Luther his earnest support and co-operation in his measures, and in 1527 assisted him in drawing up the plan for a common school system in Saxony. This system was soon put in operation in that country, and thus Luther had the pleasure of seeing the inauguration of one of his dearest hopes—the free education of the young of all classes. The system was destined to be short lived, however. The

breaking out of the Thirty Years' War, in 1618, involved all Germany in the most terrible conflict in which it had ever engaged, and which brought general ruin to the whole country. The Saxon schools were neglected in the struggle and fell into decay. Still, the good effects of Luther's work were not lost. His schools perished, but his system was the germ from which sprang the great modern system of German public education.

We have neither the time nor space to describe here the growth of the German schools. We have traced, imperfectly, the progress of free education up to the time when Protestant Germany took up the cause which she has since rendered triumphant. We can do no more at present than ask the reader's attention to the following brief notice of the German system of to-day, which we take from the "American Educational Encyclopædia" for 1875:

"The Prussian system of education, which likewise prevails in most of the German States, is the most complete and thorough of any in the old world. It assumes that it is the right and duty of the State to provide schools, and compels the attendance of all well children between seven and fourteen years of age. It furthermore looks to the special preparation of teachers, as far as practicable, for every grade of school, with opportunities for professional improvement and promotion, and guaranty of pecuniary aid when sick, infirm, or aged, and for their families in case of death. The State exercises supervision over all schools, public and private. Formerly the clergy possessed this supervising power to a large extent. The new school law of 1872, however, aimed at the entire separation of school and church, and the withdrawal of school management from the clergy as such. The Minister of Instruction, appointed by the crown, exercises supreme authority in educational matters. Local supervision rests in the provisional authorities, who have the general control of secondary education, including the gymnasia, 'Realschule,' and primary normal schools. The schools of Prussia are divided by Professor Drove into five general classes: 1st. Primary. 2d. Burgher. 3d. Realschule. 4th. Gymnasium. 5th. University.

"In nearly all the German States, as well as in Denmark and Sweden, persons are prohibited from opening schools or seminaries without undergoing examinations before boards constituted for that purpose. If found qualified, the candidate receives a teacher's license, but in this license the grade of the school he is found capable of teaching is clearly defined, and he renders himself liable to prosecution as an impostor if he represents his school in his announcements as of any higher grade than that which his license declares him qualified to teach. The following studies are obligatory for all children in Prussia: religion, the mother tongue, including writing and grammar, arithmetic, practical elementary geometry, *realien* (comprising geography, history, the elements of natural history, and the rudiments of physics), drawing, singing, gymnastics, and for girls, needlework. To each of the last four branches the pupils of the upper classes are required to give two hours weekly. In giving the gymnastic exercises the teachers must follow the course laid down in the official manual prepared for the purpose. Prussia was the first country in the world to establish normal schools, the earliest of these dating back as far as 1701. In 1819 it was decreed that ten should be established, one in each province. Now there are eighty-eight. In the whole German Empire there are one hundred and forty-three. The course of training in these professional schools varies from three to six years. In 1873 there were twenty-one universities in the German Empire, with 1734 professors and 18,588 students."

Scotland was, next to Germany, the country in Europe which after the Reformation gave most care to the education of the masses. Its free schools were the work of the

Reformation, and were among the most potent allies of that great movement. As they grew out of a religious movement, they naturally remained under the control of the clergy. In 1560 John Knox urged upon the Government the necessity of establishing free public schools in every parish, and advised that they should be supported by the Kirk and conducted by its ministers. The suggestions of the Reformer were discussed with true Scotch caution, but no action was taken upon them for a number of years. In 1696 the free school system was given a national existence by an Act of the Scottish Parliament, which established a common school in each parish, to be supported in part by the parish and in part by rate bills. These schools were placed under the charge of the clergy.

It was not in Europe, but in America, however, that the free public school system was to receive its widest development. The emigrants to the new world were chiefly of English birth and training, and came to America to found a State. They were convinced that such a task could be accomplished only by an intelligent people, and one of their first measures was to make provisions for schools which should afford their children the means of fitting themselves for the discharge of the duties of free citizens of a free State.

As early as 1621 a "Free Grammar School," as it was called, was established in Charles City, Virginia. In 1636 the General Court of Massachusetts made provision for the establishment of a similar school at Boston, appropriating to this object the sum of £400, which was equal to a year's rate of the whole colony. In 1637 an order was passed locating the school at Newtown, the name of which place was changed to Cambridge, in memory of the university in England where most of the leading men of the colony had received their education. In 1638 regular academic studies were begun, and in 1639 it was ordered that the name of the school be changed to Harvard College, in honor of the Rev. John Harvard, its great benefactor, who bequeathed to it the sum of £779 17s. 2d. "Free grammar schools" were also founded in New Haven in 1638, in Salem in 1641, and in Roxbury prior to 1645. All these schools were supported in part by donations of money or real estate, either by towns or individuals, and in part by tuition fees. They were not free schools in the truest sense, as they were free only to the contributors to their support, and to them only in part.

Still they were a beginning, and from the foundation thus laid sprang the *free public school*, which is of New England origin. It was the determination of the fathers of New England that knowledge should be restricted to no favored class, but should be accessible to every child, without other payment than the tax imposed upon the parent. Every citizen was to be taxed for the support of the free schools, and was thus to be given a direct interest in their proper conduct.

The first free public school was established by the town of Hartford, in Connecticut, prior to the year 1642. The funds for its foundation and support were supplied by the town treasury. In 1643 the authorities of Hartford passed a resolution providing "that the town shall pay for the schooling of the poor and for all deficiencies." In 1647 the colony of Massachusetts Bay enacted the first *general* law upon the subject to be found on our statute books. It was in the following words:

"It is therefore ordered yt every towneship in this jurisdiction, after ye Lord hath increased you to ye number of fifty householders, shall then forthwith appoint one within the town to teach all such children as shall resort to him to write and reade, whose wages shall be paid either by ye parents or masters of such children, or by ye inhabitants in generall by way of supply, as ye maior part of those yt order ye prudentials of ye town shall appoint, provided those yt send their children be not oppressed by paying much more yn they can have ym taught for in other towms."

The example of Massachusetts and Connecticut was followed by New Hampshire and Vermont, and free schools were established in every colony in which there were children enough.

These old-time common schools were largely religious in their character. Dr. Rigg says of them: "At first the common school was a strictly church school, a school under the special charge and oversight of the clergyman of the parish or township, and where the children were carefully instructed in the orthodox faith. In the early Puritan settlements the schoolmaster, if at all competent, was very highly thought of. . . . The highly educated schoolmaster ranked next to the minister. It is not unlikely, indeed, that the great respect which, coupled often with very inadequate pay, is found still to attach throughout the States to the office of public school teacher, is derived in part from the old Puritan and Presbyterian feeling in regard to the schoolmaster as a sort of church officer, ranking often, if he were but learned, not far behind the minister in the consideration of the parishioners. Be this, however, as it may, it is certain that in all the earlier period of the history of the States the school was a strictly religious institution. The schoolmaster in the Presbyterian settlements taught not only the Scriptures, but the Assembly's Catechism; in the Episcopal settlements he taught the Bible and the Church Catechism; among the Independents and the Quakers he, at least, closely instructed the children out of the Scriptures for generations after the Eastern States were settled." This will be readily understood when it is remembered that for several generations after the States were settled the clergy represented the best culture to be found among the people of America. Our people have always yielded a willing homage to intellectual ability, and when the clergy were their most capable guides followed them in matters of education as they did in most things else. As the country increased in prosperity and population, and in intelligence, the people began more and more to take their matters into their own hands, and finally, profiting by the lessons of other lands, assumed the control of their schools, and made them in the strictest sense of the word non-sectarian.

The records of the New England colonies show that the public schools were faithfully and liberally supported. In 1670 the Government of Connecticut could say, in answer to an official inquiry: "One-fourth of the annual revenue of the colony is laid out in maintaining the free (common) schools for the education of our children." The Middle and Southern colonies were not so careful of this great cause, and as a consequence failed to reap the benefits derived by their Eastern sisters from their fostering care of their schools. The records show that New England never murmured at the burdens necessary to the support of these schools. The colonies were heavily taxed for the ordinary purposes of government and for the costly wars against the French and the Indians: but however great their burdens they never forgot the public schools or failed to provide liberally for them. We have seen that the Thirty Years' War broke up the German schools founded by Luther. The New England schools grew up in the midst of constant war, and grew stronger and more prosperous every year in spite of their daily exposure to the dangers by which they were surrounded. Throughout the Revolution, when the whole country was staggering under its load of debt, the public schools were maintained, and the taxes necessary to their support paid promptly.

At the close of the Revolution the rich western lands of Connecticut came into the market. The sale of these lands by the State would have placed large sums of money in the treasury. Connecticut had suffered heavily during the war. She had maintained a larger number of troops in the field, in proportion to her population, than any other State, and the return of peace found her poor and with a heavy debt. The

sale of her western lands offered her a ready means of relief and would have greatly lightened the load of taxation borne by her people. In this hour of her sorest financial distress she gave a noble proof of her wise care for her children. By a solemn vote of the State Legislature the western lands of Connecticut were dedicated to the cause of education, and a law was enacted providing that the proceeds of the sales of these lands should constitute a permanent school fund; thus securing a liberal provision for the free schools in the future. The fund now amounts to \$2,044,190. The interest on this amount is annually devoted to educational purposes. The example of Connecticut was followed by Massachusetts, which State set apart for educational purposes a part of her wild lands in Maine, which then formed a portion of her territory.

At the opening of the nineteenth century the New England school system was arranged as follows: The leading principle was the instruction of all the children in the State in the rudiments of an English education, namely, reading, writing, elementary arithmetic, elementary geography, and grammar. It was sought to accomplish this by the establishment of one or more common schools in every precinct or district containing fifty householders, or even a smaller number. Each district was made independent of the others in the management of its financial affairs, in the hiring of a teacher, the provision of school-houses, text-books, etc. The schools of each town or district were placed under the charge of a superintendent or board of visitors, generally consisting of professional men, and almost invariably including the clergy. These examined the teachers, engaged them, inspected the schools, and selected the text-books. The schools were supported by a general taxation and by rate bills. The poor were expressly exempted from the payment of rate bills, the system being based upon the Connecticut maxim, that "the town shall pay for the schooling of the poor." The town authorities had power to compel the attendance of children of a school age, and to prevent and punish truancy. This system gradually spread into New York and Pennsylvania, and was established in Ohio and the other Western States settled principally by New England emigrants. It was very defective, and failed entirely to make provision for the wants of those pupils who wished to advance beyond the simpler studies of the common school.

The charters of the colonies had left their boundaries vague and undefined. Previous to 1781 only six of the original States could determine their boundaries with accuracy. The limits allowed them by their charters extended far beyond the mountains, and embraced large regions which offered many inducements to emigrants from the older communities. One after another the States ceded these lands to the General Government, establishing exactly defined borders for their own territory. It was resolved by the General Government, upon its first acceptance of these lands, that they should "be disposed of for the common benefit of the United States." It was the general desire of the country that the Government should use these lands to assist the cause of education, and in accordance with this feeling the General Government began a generous and liberal policy of assistance to the schools, which it has since steadily carried out. The ordinance of 1785 for the government of the Northwest Territory, and the second ordinance for the same purpose, passed in 1787, set apart "section 16 of every township" for the express purpose of maintaining the public schools. The latter act contained this memorable clause, setting forth the purpose of the General Government in making this donation: "*Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged.*"

Under this law the States of Ohio, Louisiana, Indiana, Mississippi, Illinois,

Alabama, Maine, Missouri, Arkansas, Michigan, Florida, Iowa, Texas, and Wisconsin have each received the 16th section of each township of the lands within their limits.

The ordinance was renewed in 1789, after the adoption of the Constitution of the United States. In 1848 the General Government decided to increase the amount of assistance extended by it to the schools, and the 36th section of every township was set apart, *in addition* to the 16th section, for school purposes.

The States which have received these two sections—the 16th and 36th—are California, Minnesota, Oregon, Kansas, Nevada, Nebraska, and Colorado. Every Territory organized since 1848 has also received these sections.

In addition to the grants of these sections to the States, sixteen States have received, in accordance with an Act passed in 1841, 500,000 acres of land each, which some have added to their school fund. These lands were not specially dedicated to educational purposes. The States receiving them were Alabama, Arkansas, California, Florida, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, Oregon, Wisconsin.

By the Acts of 1849, 1850, and 1860 the General Government donated to fourteen States certain lands, generally known as "swamp lands," embracing an aggregate of 62,428,413 acres. A considerable portion of this grant has been used by some of the recipients for school purposes. The States receiving it were Alabama, Arkansas, California, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, and Wisconsin.

The total amount of lands granted by the General Government to the public schools reaches the enormous extent of about 140,000,000 acres. The permanent school fund of the States that have received lands from this source amounts to the sum of \$43,866,787, an average of over \$2,000,000 apiece.

"Nor was the fostering care of the Government restricted to the common schools. The men who laid the foundations of our institutions were not guilty of the absurdity of supposing that any system of elementary education, however excellent, could long thrive unless there were vitally joined with it, as a part of the same system, provisions for a broad and generous higher education. They believed and acted upon the belief, that a Government established 'to promote the public welfare,' and so constructed as to reflect public opinion, might as wisely and legitimately bestow attention upon advanced education as upon primary; and they would have observed with incredulity, if with no stronger feeling, the painful efforts of those philosophers in our own day who labor to show that Government surely ought to promote instruction in the three R's, and just as surely ought not to go a step further. They regarded higher and lower education as equally important, each in its own place, and equally worthy of the patronage and assistance of the General Government.

"Accordingly the ordinance of 1787, which has been already referred to, besides its provisions for schools, set apart 'not more than two complete townships of land, to be given perpetually for the purposes of a university.' The two townships thus designated for the support of a university have accordingly been given to every State that has been organized since the beginning of the present century, and Ohio was fortunate enough to receive three—one while a Territory, and two on being admitted into the Union. Florida and Wisconsin appear to have received four each. This was the extent of the aid rendered by the Government to higher education previous to 1862. The 'university' lands thus donated amount to only \$1,119,440 acres, and the benefit derived from them has been exceedingly small. In three or four States the fund has been so administered as to produce good results, but in most cases it has profited a small number of individuals rather than the entire community. The State of Ohio,

for example, so disposed of her three townships that they now contribute only \$10,000 annually to the support of two 'universities,' while the lands themselves have been rendered forever tax free to the fortunate lessees.

"It is a noteworthy circumstance, and, as the result has proved, a grave oversight, that the United States Government, until 1862, attached no conditions to its liberal grants. In that year the Government may be said to have made a distinct and important advance in its method of donating lands for the support of education, by attaching a condition to its gifts. By the Act then passed, as is well known, Congress appropriated to the several States 30,000 acres of the public lands for each Senator and Representative in Congress; the amount accruing from the sale of such lands to be invested as a perpetual fund for the maintenance of at least one college in each State, where the principal object should be, 'without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts, in such manner as the Legislatures of the States may respectively prescribe, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions in life.' This grant has been extended by supplementary Acts, so as to apply to the States that were in rebellion when the original Act was passed; and on this basis have been established the institutions which have come to be generally, but not very correctly, known as 'Agricultural Colleges.' A few of the States have not completed the establishment of these institutions, and in some others they have not been long enough in operation to enable them to state results; but sufficient has been done to furnish the means of estimating their general working, and especially of answering the question how far they have fulfilled and are fulfilling the expectations of Congress in establishing them.

"Some apprehension has arisen on this point, owing, apparently, to a failure to notice the terms of the law in which the design of the institutions is expressed. A moment's observation will show that the words of the Act, as quoted in the preceding paragraph, are the statement of a comprehensive scheme for promoting the advanced education of the people. The broad purpose is to provide for the 'liberal' as well as the 'practical education of the industrial classes,' and that not in any single direction, but 'in the several pursuits and professions in life.' The 'leading object' is to be the promotion of 'agriculture and the mechanic arts,' not necessarily by training a body of apprentices in manual practice, which experience generally shows to be attended with too many drawbacks in an educational institution, but by teaching '*such branches of education as are related to*' those subjects; that is, in short, the whole range of the mathematical, physical, and natural sciences, with special reference to their applications in those great branches of human industry.

"The whole amount of land liable to issue under the Act of 1862 and the Acts supplementary to it is 9,600,000 acres. This land, so far as it has been disposed of, has been sold for an average price of seventy cents per acre, and if the entire amount be reckoned at the same price, the total proceeds will be \$6,720,000. This grant of less than \$7,000,000 is the sum total of what the Government has done for the institutions referred to.

"On this basis thirty-five of the States have located institutions, and as four of them have divided the fund, the number of institutions thus established is thirty-nine. Of these thirty-six have been opened, but some of them only a few months. The returns from them are necessarily imperfect, both in respect to material values and internal working. The average value of the Congressional endowment of the institutions, as

far as ascertained, is \$179,645. The maximum endowment is \$630,000, and the minimum \$50,000.*

Such is the history of the aid rendered by the General Government to the common schools and to the higher institutions of learning. We have deemed it best to present this portion of our narrative entire here, and must now return to the point at which we left the common schools in the earlier years of this century.

The defects of the common school system, as it existed at the opening of the century, were evident to all interested in it. But a limited amount of instruction was furnished, and this deteriorated in character, as the routine system of teaching had the effect, in the course of time, of lowering the standard of the schools. In consequence of this they began to suffer in the public estimation. It was evident to the earnest men engaged in the cause that the common school system must end in an ignominious failure unless the evils from which it was suffering could be checked and removed. In 1817 these persons inaugurated a reform movement, which was carried on with great vigor, and which may be said to be still in progress.

Between 1821 and 1828 the school systems of most of the New England States were subjected to a careful revision. From 1826 to 1830 conventions were held in nearly all the principal towns of New England, at which the evils from which the common schools were suffering were elaborately discussed and measures proposed for the remedying of them. The interest of the people was thoroughly aroused and was kept alive by these meetings, and the press gave its aid and encouragement to the good work of reform. Horace Mann, Henry Barnard and others labored actively to bring about a reform; teachers' institutes were established, normal schools were founded, and at length a beneficent and sweeping change was effected. A better and more vigorous system took the place of the old one, and the good work embraced not only New England, but all the Northern and most of the Western States. The work of improvement has gone on steadily since then, and scarcely a year has rolled by but has witnessed some gain in this respect.

There is no *national* system of free public education in the Union, each State reserving to itself the management of its free schools. However they may differ as to details, the systems of the various States are founded upon a series of fundamental principles common to all, and which may be briefly stated as follows: There is a system of graded schools for each town or district, embracing, 1st. Primary schools for the younger pupils. 2d. Grammar schools for those of more advanced age, in which are taught, in addition to the ordinary branches, philosophy, chemistry, history, and frequently drawing, vocal music, algebra, geometry, and French. 3d. High schools for the still more advanced, in which are taught the studies necessary for a business education, and in most cases the languages and higher mathematics. These schools are placed under the supervision of one or more efficient visitors, who are paid for their services. They ascertain by a thorough examination the qualifications of the teachers, who are employed or dismissed upon their recommendation. In each town or district these visitors, or "Boards of Education," have power to enforce uniformity of text-books, and in most of the States are forbidden by law to change the text-books in use under a given period. Some of the States enforce uniformity of text-books in all the schools within their limits. The local boards have also authority to compel regularity and punctuality of attendance. Provision is made for the establishment of school libraries in connection with the free schools. The local boards select black-boards, maps, charts, globes and other apparatus for instruction, a liberal sum being

* "American Educational Encyclopedia" for 1875, pp. 15, 17.

allowed for the purchase of these. They are also required to secure the erection of suitable school-houses, arranged in such a manner as to receive proper warmth and ventilation, and constructed so as to promote convenience of instruction. Normal schools are established in every State for the instruction and training of teachers. Teachers' institutes are also held at stated times and places for the exercise and drill of those already engaged in the work of their profession. Teachers' State associations are organized for the comparison of methods of teaching and the establishment of periodicals devoted to education. In some of the States the schools are absolutely free to all, and are supported entirely by taxation and the interest upon their permanent educational funds; in others they are supported in part by taxation and in part by small rate bills, which are abated where the parents of the child are unable to pay. In such cases the text-books needed, as well as instruction, are furnished to the pupil without cost; so that the schools are practically free even in the States where rate bills exist. This practice, however, is rapidly disappearing. The schools are now absolutely free in most of the States and will soon be in all.

One great defect of the system is the isolation of the local Boards of Education. Except in Massachusetts and New York there is hardly a shadow of a State system, so called. Even in Massachusetts the State has no power to enforce any regulation concerning the management of the schools in the towns. It can only advise. In some of the States attendance upon school is compulsory. The compulsory education law of New York, which went into effect on the 1st of January, 1875, is a fair specimen of the legislation on this subject. Its leading provisions are as follows:

"All parents and guardians are required to instruct children in their charge, or cause them to be instructed, in spelling, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, and arithmetic. All children not physically or mentally incapacitated, between the ages of eight and fourteen years, must attend some public or private day school at least fourteen weeks each year, eight of which shall be consecutive, or they must be taught at home fully fourteen weeks each year in the branches named above.

"No person shall employ any child under fourteen years of age during the established school hours of the locality, unless such child shall have attended some public or private day school fourteen weeks of the fifty-two weeks next preceding any and every year in which such child shall be employed, or shall have been instructed at home during the time above mentioned, and in the branches above specified. The child must deliver to his employer a certificate to this effect in the handwriting of his teacher. The penalty for disobeying this provision of the bill is fifty dollars, to be paid into the school fund by the employer for each offence.

"Trustees are required to inspect the situation of all children employed in the manufacturing establishments, in February and September of each year, and to report all violations. Manufacturers are compelled to furnish correct lists of the children in their employ between the ages of eight and fourteen years.

"For violating any provisions of this bill one dollar fine shall be paid. For each succeeding violation, after having been properly notified, the offender shall pay five dollars for each and every week's continuance, not exceeding thirteen weeks in any one year. All these penalties are to be devoted to school purposes.

"Trustees are required to furnish text-books for the children on the written statement of parents or guardians that they are unable to do so.

"On the statement of any parent or guardian that he or she cannot compel a child to conform to this Act, the latter shall be regarded as an habitual truant and so dealt with.

"Boards of Trustees and Instruction are authorized and directed to make all needful

provisions, arrangements, and regulations for the discipline, instruction, and confinement of habitual truant children found in the streets, subject to the approval of the Justice of the Supreme Court of the district. Two weeks' attendance at a half-term or evening school shall, for all purposes of this Act, which takes effect on the first day of January, be counted as one week at a day school."

Previous to the war the Southern States, as a rule, were careless of their public schools. In some of them a system of free common schools could scarcely be said to exist. Many of the larger towns and cities of the South supported excellent free schools, but no such provision was made for the children of the country districts. Apart from its apathy on this subject, the South had a great difficulty to contend with in its sparsely settled country, which rendered it impossible in some localities to conduct a school with success. At the close of the civil war, when the various State Governments of the South were undergoing the process of reconstruction, advantage was taken of the opportunity to establish in each State a system of free public education suited to its wants. The embarrassed financial condition of these States made it impossible to carry out the new laws respecting education as promptly or as thoroughly as was desired, but a fair beginning was made, which gives promise of great results in the future. In Arkansas and Texas education is compulsory.

The black population is not neglected. Some of the Southern States have made liberal provision for colored schools. Some of these are among the best schools in the South. There has been no effort to mingle the two races in the schools, but a generous and far-sighted policy has secured to the colored schools all the advantages enjoyed by the white.

In 1874 an effort was made in Congress to secure the passage of a measure known as the Civil Rights Bill, which provided, among other things, for the mingling of the two races in the common schools. The bill passed the Senate, but could not command a sufficient vote in the House, and so was lost. It was bitterly opposed by the Southern people, whose sentiments were condensed as follows by the *Memphis Appeal*: "It is evident the public school systems of the Southern States cannot survive the enactment of this bill." It was declared by many of the best friends of the black race that an attempt to establish mixed schools in the South would utterly defeat itself. The whites could not be compelled to send their children to such schools, and would be rendered bitterly hostile to all schemes of free public education. Many of the most earnest members of the Republican party opposed the bill because of this conviction. The educational press of the North and West as a rule regarded the bill with extreme disfavor, and urged its withdrawal. The *Iowa School Journal* expressed the views of its fellow-workers in the cause of free education, as well as its own, in the following: "In our opinion the bill, should it become a law, will greatly annoy the cause of education in certain parts of the Union. If the law shall be so worded or interpreted as to demand that a school system supported by general taxation shall provide as good schools for the blacks as for the whites, leaving it with the boards and school officers, or the localities, to determine whether or not the blacks shall be entitled to seats in the schools provided for the whites, and *vice versa*, it would meet every demand of justice and equality. In Keokuk, in our own State, the Board of Education has provided for a 'colored school,' with suitable buildings and competent teachers. We can see that a law which would step in and break up this distinction, under the plea that the Board has made a discrimination on account of color, would be absurd and foolish in the extreme." The measure having failed, there is good reason to believe that it will not be attempted again. Race prejudices cannot be overcome by Congressional enactments, and the fairest and most friendly course to the blacks is to

secure for them what the whites of the South are willing to concede—equal advantages in separate schools. In the South at large there is a very decided willingness to give the negroes these advantages, for the whites are now convinced that the prosperity of their States depends upon the education of all their citizens. There will hardly be another effort made to array the race prejudice of the Southern people against the system of public education, and we may therefore hope that the progress of education among the negroes will be rapid and satisfactory in the future.

The general advance made by the common school system in the past eight or ten years has been very great. The extent and character of it cannot be shown better than by the following statistics of several of the principal States, which we take from the "American Educational Encyclopædia" for 1875:

"In the State of California the number of school districts in 1864 was 684; in 1874 it was 1462. In 1864 the whole number of schools was 754; in 1874 it had increased to 1868. The number of pupils in the public schools in 1864 was 29,416; in 1874 it was 97,681. In the former year the sum of \$328,338 was paid to teachers; in the latter year these salaries amounted to \$1,434,366. In 1864 the sum of \$2271 was spent for school libraries and apparatus; in 1874 the amount spent for this purpose was \$29,245. In 1864 the total expenditure for school purposes was \$483,407; in 1874 it was \$2,113,356.

"In the State of Illinois the progress of eight years is shown by the following figures: In 1865 the number of districts in the State was 10,062; in 1873 it was 11,231. In the former year the number of schools was 10,291; in the latter 11,396. In 1865 the total number of teachers was 17,015; in 1873 it was 20,924. In 1865 the number of pupils was 580,304; in 1873 it was 662,049. The average monthly salaries of teachers in 1865 were as follows: males \$38.09; females \$24.96. In 1873 they had increased to the following monthly average: males \$50; females \$39. The total amount expended for school purposes in 1865 was \$3,193,636; in 1873 it was \$7,480,889.

"In Iowa the number of schools in 1864 was 6237; in 1874 it was 8816. In the former year the total average attendance of pupils was 111,185; in the latter year it was 204,204. In 1864 the amount paid to teachers was \$570,115; in 1874 it was \$2,248,667. The total amount expended for school purposes in 1864 was \$761,537; in 1874 it was \$4,229,455.

"In the State of Maryland the comparison extends over but eight years. In 1866 the number of schools in the State was 1219; in 1874 it was 1742. The number of teachers in 1866 was 1533; it had increased to 2555 in 1874. The total number of pupils in 1866 was 64,793; in 1874 it was 130,234. In 1866 the sum of \$356,680 was paid for teachers' salaries; in 1874 the sum of \$889,486 was paid for the same purpose. The total amount expended for school purposes in 1866 was \$477,425; in 1874 the amount expended for this purpose was \$1,354,066.

"In Massachusetts the number of schools in the State in 1863 was 4626; in 1873 it was 5305. The number of teachers in 1863 was 10,753; in 1873 it was 8449. The average attendance was 181,381 in 1863; and was 202,882 in 1873. In the former year the amount of money raised by taxation for the support of common schools was \$1,434,015; in 1873 this amount was \$3,889,053.

"The State of Michigan shows a notable improvement in the past ten years. In 1864 there were 4426 school districts in the State. In 1874 the number had increased to 5521. In the former year the whole number of children attending school was 215,736; in the latter year it was 324,615. In 1864 the number of teachers was 8816; in 1874 it was 11,950. In 1864 the amount paid for teachers' salaries was \$591,335;

in 1874 it was \$1,765,068. In 1864 the total amount expended for purposes of education was \$871,671; in 1874 it was \$3,148,885.

"The ten years' progress of Nevada covers the whole period of her existence as a State, the date of her admission into the Union being 1864. In 1864 there were 34 school districts in the State, in which the estimated value of school-houses was \$34,733; in 1874 the number of school districts was 62, the value of school-houses \$69,413. In 1864 there were 1524 pupils in attendance upon the public schools, which employed the services of 37 teachers; in 1874 the number of pupils was 3372, the number of teachers 76. In 1864 the total school expenditures were \$50,732; in 1874 they were \$98,468.

"In the State of New York the number of school districts in 1864 was 11,717, the number of school-houses 11,712; in 1874 the number of school districts was 11,995, the number of school-houses 11,739. In the former year the number of children attending school was 881,184; in the latter year it was 1,030,779. In 1864 the number of teachers employed was 26,888; in 1874 it was 29,464. In 1864 the amount paid as teachers' salaries was \$3,093,460; in 1874 it was \$7,415,181. In 1864 the State paid the sum of \$30,468 for the support of colored schools; in 1874 the amount expended for this purpose was \$74,611. The total expenditures for school purposes in 1864 amounted to \$5,069,250; in 1874 they were \$12,088,762.

"In the State of Ohio, in 1864, there were 11,810 public schools; in 1874 the number was 14,543. In the former year the number of teachers employed was 20,108; in the latter year it was 21,899. In 1864 the amount expended for tuition and incidental expenses was \$2,420,940; in 1874 it was \$5,535,747. The total expenditures for educational purposes in 1864 were \$2,738,124; in 1874 they amounted to \$7,431,975.

"In the State of Pennsylvania there were 1825 school districts and 12,566 schools in 1864; in 1874 the number of school districts was 2050, the number of schools 16,305. The number of pupils in the former year was 637,785; in the latter year it was 834,020. The number of teachers in 1864 was 14,688; in 1874 it was 19,089. In 1864 the total amount expended for school purposes was \$2,218,355; in 1874 it was \$8,345,836.

"In the State of Vermont there were 2682 school districts in 1864, and 2754 in 1874. In the former year there were 76,021 pupils enrolled in the schools; in the latter year 78,139. The number of teachers employed in 1864 was 4341; in 1874 it was 4406. The total amount expended for school purposes in 1864 was \$327,249; in 1874 it was \$622,227.

"The following figures show the progress of six years in the new State of West Virginia: In 1868 there were 1517 school districts and 1140 schools in that State; in 1874 the number of school districts was 2411, the number of schools 2857. In the former year there were 35,304 pupils attending the public schools; in the latter year the attendance was 81,100. In 1864 the total expenditures for school purposes were \$167,130; in 1874 these expenditures amounted to \$748,064."

The following table, which is taken from the same source as the above figures, will show the financial resources of the various States at the beginning of 1874, with respect to the common schools:

RECEIPTS OF SCHOOLS AND STATE SCHOOL FUNDS.

STATES.	Income from taxation for 1873.	Total income from all sources.	School Fund.
Alabama.....		\$490,601	
Arkansas.....	\$67,378	405,464	\$55,000
California.....	1,423,719	2,551,279	1,417,500
Colorado.....	137,557	257,557	137,507
Connecticut.....	1,203,842	1,442,667	2,043,375
Delaware.....	163,284	192,397	
Florida.....	75,000	116,219	281,785
Georgia.....	108,992	260,432	
Illinois.....	6,673,097	9,259,441	6,382,000
Indiana.....	1,482,279	3,081,773	8,395,155
Iowa.....	3,898,702	4,519,688	3,294,742
Kansas.....	931,958	1,863,098	3,017,589
Kentucky.....	838,000	963,121	1,628,123
Louisiana.....	493,845	678,373	
Maine.....	849,775	1,179,712	312,975
Maryland.....	1,033,721	1,398,607	315,370
Massachusetts.....	3,889,053	4,206,054	2,127,653
Michigan.....	2,561,133	3,939,528	3,124,471
Minnesota.....	814,891	1,093,706	2,907,624
Mississippi.....	1,089,685	1,242,308	1,950,000
Missouri.....	1,145,384	1,790,314	7,273,882
Nebraska.....	111,018	798,660	
Nevada.....			104,000
New Hampshire.....	434,150	502,527	47,192
New Jersey.....	2,426,705	2,947,068	805,033
New York.....	10,305,397	11,256,895	3,023,573
North Carolina.....	212,363	408,794	2,187,564
Ohio.....	6,739,344	7,705,603	2,562,992
Oregon.....	71,152	230,611	452,721
Pennsylvania.....	7,548,149	8,248,119	
Rhode Island.....	556,250	601,361	45,000
South Carolina.....	449,968	449,968	
Tennessee.....			
Texas.....	1,092,915	1,144,534	
Vermont.....	415,432	532,110	
Virginia.....	850,000	1,023,000	1,500,000
West Virginia.....	693,059	778,991	305,849
Wisconsin.....	1,310,096	2,628,027	2,389,488
TERRITORIES.			
Arizona.....	4,942	5,849	
Dakota.....	22,000	22,000	
District of Columbia.....	220,514	220,514	
Idaho.....	20,129	33,013	
Indian.....	31,350	33,161	
Montana.....		58,621	
New Mexico.....	12,885	127,447	
Utah.....			
Washington.....	12,000	17,000	
Wyoming.....	41,180	69,474	

From what has been written the reader will be able to trace the rise and progress of the free school system from its birth down to its grand development in the American schools of to-day. We have shown that the free school was the outgrowth of the Christian Church, and was for a long period entirely under the control of the clergy. We have pointed out the evils which arose from such a connection, and have shown, in an imperfect way, it is true, the gradual secularization of the schools. As men have become advanced in wisdom and experience, they have become convinced that the task of conducting the general education of the masses of the people belongs properly to the State. In this country this conviction has led to the withdrawal of the common schools from the hands of the church, and the experiment of making them strictly secular institutions has been tried and has demonstrated that upon no other basis can the schools be properly or successfully conducted.

In our own free land the State does not concern itself with the religious beliefs of

its citizens, except to secure to each and all full protection and equality under the law. It gathers together in the public schools children of every shade of religious belief. Its object is not to make religious converts—it leaves that task to the various churches and to the religious and home influences by which the child is surrounded in its private life—but to fit the young pupil for the exercise of the important duties of a free citizen of a free Republic. It aims simply to give him as good an education as the means at hand will permit, and to save him from the sorrow and degradation of ignorance. It aims to train up an intelligent community as the only means of preserving its free institutions. It has no right to attempt the religious training of its children, and it would be a great wrong to them to do so. Such training they must receive from the religious organizations to which they belong. It cannot undertake to teach all creeds in the public schools, and to attempt to enforce any particular religious tenets in those institutions would be a cruel wrong to the community. Therefore the American people have wisely determined that their public schools shall concern themselves only with the business of secular education.

For some years past there has been a persistent effort in certain quarters to force upon the public schools a semi-religious or sectarian character. The sentiment of the nation has set so strongly against this that the advocates of the scheme have been forced to change their mode of attack. It is now proposed that the State shall assume the support of the sectarian schools by appropriating to them the taxes levied upon and collected from the whole people, or by using for this purpose a part of the public school funds, which are the property of the people of each State without respect to religious belief.

The American people have learned too well the lessons of the past to listen for a moment to such a demand. They will maintain their noble system of public education unimpaired, and will resist and defeat all attempts to give to it a sectarian character, or to divert its means of support to objects foreign to its design. They are convinced that it is the only means of training up an intelligent body of citizens, and that as such it is the very corner-stone and foundation of their liberties and prosperity, and must be maintained in all its vigor and purity, be the cost what it may.

WONDERS OF NATURE AND ART IN AMERICA.

OUR OLDEST INHABITANT.

It is believed that the oldest man living within the territory of the Union is Mr. Lomer Griffin, of Lodi, Medina county, Ohio. He is *nearly one hundred and seventeen years old*. He was born at Granby, Litchfield county, Connecticut, on the 22d of April, 1759. In spite of his advanced age he is hale and intelligent, and remembers the events of his early life with distinctness. He can recall with ease the incidents connected with the excitement produced in his native town by the breaking out of the American Revolution. Among these he mentions the departure of his brothers from home to enlist in the army, while he remained behind to take care of the farm. He cast his first vote for John Adams for President, having failed for some reason which he does not remember to vote for Washington. Since then he has voted at every Presidential election. His life has been simple and uneventful, having been passed in plain farmer style. He has never used tobacco in any shape, but until a short while ago has taken his "bitters" regularly. About forty years ago he lost his right arm by the fall of a tree, but is quite expert with his left.

"He dislikes to be bothered by inquiries about his age," says a writer in *Harpers' Weekly*, "and when a newspaper interviewer questioned him too closely a short time since about Noah's Ark, and the Tower of Babel, the old gentleman quite testily resented the impertinence, and advised the interviewer to 'go West and kill grasshoppers.' But after a little persuasion and coaxing he became quite communicative, and talked without reserve of his early days and experiences, of the times when only a narrow strip of territory along our eastern seaboard was inhabited, and the greater part of our country was still in the hands of the dusky and savage aborigines. What wonderful changes have taken place all over the world in politics, science and the industrial arts since he was old enough to take an interest in the progress of public affairs! He has lived through changes which we know only from books, and with his own eyes has witnessed the growth of America from its colonial state to its present commanding position among the nations of the world." Mr. Griffin was alive at the close of the year 1875, and his friends were hopeful that he would be spared to witness the Centennial of the independence of his country.

THE AMERICAN FLAG.

There has been much controversy as to the date of the adoption of the Stars and Stripes as the national ensign of the United States. The facts in the case are simply these: A number of flags had been used by the Americans previous to the Declaration of Independence, none of which could be called *national*. On the 14th of June, 1777, Congress ordered "that the flag of the thirteen United States be thirteen stripes, alternate red and white; that the Union be thirteen stars, white in a blue field, representing a new constellation." The design is supposed to have been suggested by John Adams, who was then Chairman of the Board of War; and it is believed that he obtained the idea from the arms of the Washington family, the shield of which represents a white field traversed by two red bars, with three spur rowels or stars in the upper portion. The resolution of June 14th was not made public until September 3d, 1777, and the Stars and Stripes were first displayed conspicuously at the surrender of Bur-

goyne in October of the same year. No attempt was made to alter the flag until 1794, when it was resolved by Congress that it should consist of fifteen stripes and fifteen stars. The addition of a star and a stripe for each new State was found to be exceedingly inconvenient, as it would soon enlarge the flag to ridiculous proportions. In 1817, Captain Reid of the navy, who had commanded the famous privateer General Armstrong, during the second war with England, suggested that the number of stripes be fixed at thirteen, in commemoration of the thirteen original colonies, and that a new star be added to the cluster in the Union on the 4th day of July next succeeding the admission of any new State. The suggestion was adopted by Congress, and on the 4th of April, 1818, became a law. The first flag made under this law was made by the wife of Captain Reid. This lady died in Baltimore, Maryland, about the year 1857.

THE ASTOR LIBRARY.

On the east side of Lafayette Place, in the city of New York, stands one of the noblest institutions in America—the Library given by the Astors to the city of New York. The library owes its existence to the late John Jacob Astor. For many years he carefully considered the subject, and at his death bequeathed the sum of four hundred thousand dollars “for the establishment of a public library in the city of New York.” The will provided that the management of the affairs of the institution should be confided to a board of eleven trustees. The building was completed a few years after Mr. Astor’s death, and the library was opened in January, 1854. The edifice is in the Byzantine style of architecture, and is one of the handsomest of its kind in the country. The library room is one hundred feet in length by sixty-four in width, and fifty in height, and is reached by a flight of thirty-six marble steps leading from the front entrance. The lower rooms are used for the deposit of public documents and other purposes.

The growth of the library was so rapid that in January, 1856, Mr. William B. Astor, perceiving that the original building was not large enough for the purpose contemplated by his father, made a donation of an adjacent piece of land eighty feet wide and one hundred feet deep, and upon this erected at his own cost an additional building of the same size and in the same style as the original edifice.

As early as the year 1839 Mr. Astor, aided by Dr. Joseph G. Cogswell, afterwards the first Superintendent of the library, purchased a number of books as the basis of the collection he intended to establish. In May, 1848, Dr. Cogswell was appointed Superintendent of the library, in accordance with the known wishes of Mr. Astor. In the fall of the same year he visited Europe, authorized to purchase books to the amount of \$20,000. He was absent about four months, during which time he collected about 20,000 volumes. These were placed in a building temporarily rented for the purpose. By the time the present library building was opened the number of books had increased to 70,000. The full capacity of the buildings is over 200,000 volumes, and has been nearly reached at the present time.

In the selection of books particular care was given to those which it was believed would be most useful to a young and growing country. The departments of technology and bibliography are unusually rich, and that of American history is designed to be one of the chief features of the collection. In linguistics, particularly Oriental, the Astor Library is the most valuable in America. Great care has also been given to natural science, the works on this branch numbering about 7000 volumes, and many of these are rare and costly.

Every facility is offered to visitors who desire to avail themselves of the advantages

of the library. A systematic and excellent mode of government has been adopted, which is satisfactory to both officers and visitors.

The catalogue of the library will be, when completed, the most perfectly arranged catalogue ever published. It will consist of eight octavo volumes, numbering upward of 500 printed pages each. The first four volumes will be devoted to an alphabetical index of authors' names, and the remaining four to a systematically arranged catalogue of subjects. A portion of the work has been printed.

OPERATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES MINT.

The process of coining money, as practised in the United States Mint at Philadelphia, and its branches, is deeply interesting.

Each deposit of gold and silver is received and receipted for by the Treasurer of the Mint. It is weighed and numbered and sent to the melting room, where it is melted and cast into bars. The object of this process is to convert the mass into a homogeneous state, so that by an assay piece taken from it the condition of the whole may be ascertained. After the melting the deposit is returned to the Treasurer, and the assayer, taking a small but stated quantity, ascertained by weight, subjects it to an exceedingly delicate chemical test, by which he ascertains the proportion of gold or silver which it contains, and thus determines the fineness of the whole. The result is reported to the Treasurer and carefully registered. The fine gold is parted from the mass by dissolving the silver which it contains by means of nitric acid, and precipitating it by a solution of common salt. This gives chloride of silver, which is reduced to fine silver by the action of sulphuric acid and granulated zinc. After the separation both the gold and the silver remain in the form of fine powders, and are entirely unlike those metals as ordinarily seen. Upon being melted, however, they assume their proper form.

The fine gold thus obtained is now mixed with a stated proportion of copper for alloy, and after being melted is cast into ingots of the sizes suitable for coins. These ingots are examined by the assayer, who certifies to such as are of the standard fineness, after which they are delivered by the melter and refiner to the Treasurer. As the metals pass from hand to hand they are charged or credited to the official receiving or returning them, and these accounts are adjusted every year.

The Treasurer delivers the certified ingots to the coiner. These ingots are flat metal bars about twelve inches long, one-third of an inch thick, and from three-quarters to one and a half inches in width. The bars are passed through a powerful steam press, which accurately flattens them into strips of the thickness required for the coins for which they are designed. After being brought to the proper condition the bars are cut by a vertical punch into planchets of the size wanted. The planchets are carefully weighed before being coined. This is done by females, whose delicacy of touch renders them the best persons for this service. The women are seated at a long table, and each one is provided with a pair of balances and a flat file. If, upon weighing them, the planchets are found to be too heavy, they are brought to the proper weight by drawing the file lightly around the edge, while those that are too light are thrown aside to be remelted.

After being thus adjusted the planchets are placed in the milling machine, the effect of which is to crowd up the edge of each piece evenly into a border or rim. Upon being taken out they are annealed and cleaned or whitened. They are now ready for coining. The planchets are a little smaller than the space in which they

are placed in the coining press. The force of the die causes them to expand into the collar of the machine and take from it a fluted edge. The completed coins are carefully examined by the coiner for the purpose of detecting the imperfect pieces, after which they are counted, put into bags, and finally delivered to the Treasurer. The process of counting is very greatly simplified by means of a counting board invented by an officer of the Mint. Nearly all the machinery used in the Mint is of American invention and manufacture. The steam engine in the coining room is noted as one of the most perfect and beautiful machines ever made.

The greatest care is taken to hold all the individuals connected with the Mint to a strict accountability for the metals and coins which pass through their hands, and it is highly gratifying to know that these officials have always been found faithful to their trust. Indeed, the wastage of the metals in melting and refining is generally, for gold, about one-thirteenth, and for silver one-eighth of the amount allowed by law for that purpose.

During the year 1874 the operations of the mint and its branches were as follows: Gold coinage, \$50,442,690; silver coinage, \$5,983,601; gold bars stamped, \$31,485,818; silver bars stamped, \$6,847,799.18.

THE PINY WOODS.

In the far Southern States of the Union there are large districts known by this name. They extend generally from sixty to one hundred miles inland from the coast of the Gulf of Mexico through the States of Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and a part of Louisiana. The region occupied by them is but little cleared or cultivated. The surface is varied, but is barren and sandy throughout. Almost the entire growth is pine. The woods are very dense and in many places majestic, though one soon becomes tired of the sameness of the scene. The borders of the streams are fringed with a thick growth of magnolia, bay, laurel, and other evergreens. The absence of undergrowth allows the eye a wide range through the trees. The smaller swamps or thickets, which are numerous, are known by the inhabitants of the region as "Bay-galls," and these are often the sources of large streams. Here the deer and other game, which desert the open woods, are found in large numbers. A singular feature of these woods consists of circles of trees, of an acre or less in extent, entirely dead, without any apparent cause. This is variously attributed to the ravages of insects or the effects of lightning. The brooks and rivulets of the piny woods consist of the purest and most limpid water, and the atmosphere of the region is singularly healthful and exhilarating. The exhalations from the pine trees are believed to possess properties positively curative of incipient pulmonary disease.

THE INDIAN SIGN LANGUAGE.

America, and especially that portion of it included within the limits of the United States, has made the most extraordinary advance in the great work of civilization; but there are still large portions of the continent as wild, and peopled by races as barbarous, as when Columbus first set foot upon our shores. On our own western frontier there are races of Indians who are still untamed and dangerous, and who hold the white man their greatest enemy, and prize his scalp as their proudest ornament.

These people are not only distinct from the white race, but they are separated from each other by lines as strongly drawn and by customs as varied as those which divide the various nations of Europe. By these customs they can at a glance distinguish

each other when a white man would fail to perceive any difference. For instance, in order to enable parties roaming across the prairies to distinguish friends from enemies, they have adopted a general system of signs. When two parties of Indians meet on the prairie they halt and commence signalling. The signal to halt is given by raising the right hand with the palm in front, and gradually moving it forward and back several times. When this command has been obeyed, one of the parties will raise the right hand again and move it slowly to the right and left. This means, "Who are you? I do not know you." The other party will then reply by giving the peculiar signal of the tribe to which they belong, and if this be not understood the questioning party will ask if they are friends by raising both hands grasped in the manner of shaking hands, or by locking the two forefingers firmly while the hands are held up. If friendly the other party will respond with the same signal, but if enemies they will probably disregard the command to halt, or will give the signal of anger by closing the hand, placing it against the forehead, and turning it back and forth while in that position.

The nationality of a party is signalled as follows, which will be better understood by the reader when it is remembered that the name of each Indian tribe has a particular signification. The Comanche, or "Snake," is indicated by making with the hand a waving motion in the air in imitation of the crawling of a snake. The Cheyenne, or "Cut Arm," by drawing the hand across the arm to imitate the cutting it with a knife. The Arapahoes, or "Smellers," by seizing the nose with the thumb and forefinger. The Sioux, or "Cut-throats," by drawing the hand across the throat. The Pawnees, or "Wolves," by placing a hand on each side of the forehead, with two fingers pointing to the front, to represent the narrow, sharp ears of the wolf. The Crows by imitating the flapping of the bird's wings with the palms of the hands.

The Indians do not confine themselves to these purposes in their sign language. They have a pantomimic vocabulary which is exceedingly graceful and simple, and which is understood and used with great facility and accuracy by all the tribes from the Gila to the Columbia, the motions and signs to express ideas being common to all. It is a singular fact that this Indian sign language bears a striking resemblance to that used by the deaf mutes in our public institutions. General Marcy, of the United States army, states that he described a buffalo hunt to the pupils of one of these institutions, using the Indian sign language, and that the pupils understood him perfectly, with the exception of mistaking a buffalo for a deer.

By means of these signs the Indians, whose sight is keen and practised, can communicate with each other at considerable distances and in the presence of an enemy. Indeed, the closer we study their customs the more we are impressed with the fact that necessity, "the mother of invention," has supplied them with expedients which equal many of our own in ingenuity.

THE ICE TRADE.

The business of gathering, storing, and selling ice has become such a commonplace affair in our country that our readers may be surprised to find it included among the remarkable things of this wonderful land. But as such, indeed, it deserves to rank.

The principal supplies of ice are collected in the Northern States, and are obtained from the fresh-water rivers, the smaller lakes, and the New England "ponds," from the upper Mississippi to the Canada line. The more important firms engaged in the business pursue a uniform and exact system, which is very interesting and admirably adapted to the purpose. When the ice has reached a thickness of nine or ten inches

for home use, or twenty inches for exportation, the snow, or rough upper crust, is shaved off by means of a metal scraper which is drawn over it by a single horse. An instrument, or plow, armed with several sharp blades placed at regular distances from each other, is drawn over the ice, and then drawn over it a second time at right angles to the first lines, dividing the field into small blocks twenty-two inches square. In some cases the size of the blocks is twenty-two by thirty-six inches. A plow of deeper blade is then drawn over the ice in the lines made by the first plow, sinking just deep enough to leave the ice adhering firmly together until the final operation. In the smaller establishments the final cutting is done by means of a hand-saw. An ice-spade completes the final separation of the blocks, and they are pushed by means of a pike into the open water and conveyed to the shore. Here the blocks are carried by the aid of steam power up an inclined plane to a gallery, from which they are lowered into the ice-house in regular rows.

The ice-houses are situated immediately on the shore of the water where the "harvest" is made. They are substantially constructed, and are very large and spacious, frequently exceeding 20,000 tons in capacity. There is an ice-house at Athens, on the Hudson, which holds 58,000 tons, and there are two at Rockland Lake, New York, holding 40,000 tons each. There are about fifty of these huge buildings around Fresh Pond, in Cambridge, Massachusetts.

The cutting season is very short, and all hands are kept busy. The work is carried on day and night, and the number of men engaged often amounts to several hundred. These, aided by the steam power employed in lifting the ice from the water to the houses, cut and pack about 600 tons in an hour. The scene is animated and exhilarating, and never fails to draw large crowds of spectators to witness it.

The first attempt to make American ice an article of commerce was made by Mr. Frederic Tudor, of Boston, who, in 1805, sailed from that port in his own brig for Martinique, with a cargo of 130 tons of ice, which he obtained from that part of Lynn which was then called Saugus. Mr. Tudor derived no profit from this business until the close of the second war with England, when he obtained the monopoly of the Havana trade. In 1817 he introduced his business into Charleston, South Carolina; in 1818 into Savannah, Georgia; and in 1820 into New Orleans. About 200,000 tons of ice are annually shipped from the port of Boston alone at present. About one-half of this amount is sent to the Southern States. Besides this, New York and several other cities are engaged in exporting ice. A great quantity of ice is also obtained from the great lakes and shipped down the Mississippi. The ice-boats ascend to the vicinity of Peru, Illinois, in the autumn, where they are filled during the winter, and allowed to freeze up in the river. They are released by the spring thaw, and float down the river into the Mississippi with their freight. A large part of the Southern States draws its ice supply from this source.

AN AMERICAN ENTERPRISE.

The Express system, now so necessary to the wants of our country, is decidedly an American institution. It was begun, like many great enterprises, in a very modest and unassuming way. On the 4th of March, 1839, Mr. William F. Harnden, of Boston, made his first trip from that city to New York as a public messenger. His route was from Boston to Providence by railroad, and thence by steamer, *via* Long Island Sound, to New York. He had charge of a few booksellers' bundles and orders, and some packages belonging to brokers, containing Southern and Western bank notes to deliver or exchange. For these services he charged a moderate compensation,

and his enterprise soon grew so popular that he proposed to take charge of freight, the speedy delivery of which he guaranteed. For this purpose he made a contract with the Providence Railroad and the steamers connecting with it, which enabled him to make four trips per week. His scheme offered so many advantages to business men and others that it soon became firmly established. This was the origin of the express system, which, commencing thirty-six years ago with a capital of about five dollars, employing one man, and embracing but one route of less than 200 miles, now commands over \$20,000,000 of capital, employs about 10,000 men, and traverses each day nearly 40,000 miles of railroad, besides the steamboat routes. Besides the home traffic, some of the companies send out expresses by every steamer to Europe, and receive them from the Old World with equal regularity.

The advantages of the system are incalculable, and it may be safely asserted that the business of the country could not be transacted without it. A merchant sending goods to a distant buyer may ship them by an express, the proprietors of which will guarantee their safe delivery far in advance of the time that would be consumed by the ordinary freight lines; be responsible for any loss or injury of goods; and, should the merchant desire it, will collect the amount of his bill on the delivery of the goods, and remit it to him within a few days, at a moderate charge and without trouble to him.

The business of the express companies is conducted with the most perfect order and precision. Each man has his place and separate specified duties. There is no conflict of authority, no confusion; everything goes on with clock-like regularity. Every charge made by the company for transportation is entered, with the date, upon the way bill, at the office or station from which it is forwarded. The address of each package is entered in full, with the value of the package and the sum charged by the company for transporting it. Each agent retains copies of his way bills, which copies are carefully preserved, and after a certain time forwarded to the main office of the division, where they are filed away. Every package received by an agent is compared with its appropriate entry in the way bill accompanying it. If correct, it is checked off; if wrong, information of the error is sent to the office from which it was shipped, and the mistake promptly rectified. The companies transport their freight in their own cars, paying the various roads a stated sum per annum for this privilege, and these cars form a part of each fast express or mail train. Every express car or train is accompanied by a "messenger." To the agent of every station he delivers what the way bill calls for, and receives the freight to be forwarded from that point to the stations further on. All this is done at the stations during the ordinary pauses of the trains.

The main offices of the various companies are located in New York. Their routes extend throughout the Union, every railway station being an express office.

When we consider the vast amount of energy and executive ability and tact engaged in the management of the tremendous business of the various express companies we may well be proud of an institution which reflects so much credit upon the mercantile community of the Union, and which has done so much to develop the industry and wealth of the country.



THE CHICAGO LAKE TUNNEL.

One of the most remarkable public works in this or any other country is the great tunnel under Lake Michigan, by means of which the city of Chicago is supplied with pure water. It is a triumph of engineering skill of which any country might be

proud, and will always remain a noble monument to the intelligence and enterprise of the great West.

For many years Chicago labored under a serious disadvantage with regard to its supply of drinking water, which retarded the growth of the city and impaired its healthfulness. The drinking water of the city was obtained from sources which were poisoned by the drainage of its sewers. There was but one way to remedy this evil, and that was to obtain pure water from the lake at a distance too far from the city to admit of the liquid being rendered impure by contact with the drainage of the city. The municipal authorities set to work in concert with competent engineers to accomplish this, and the result of their efforts is the wonderful lake tunnel.

It was resolved to sink a shaft into the bed of the lake at a distance of two miles from the city, and to connect this shaft with the water-works by means of a tunnel under the bed of the lake. The lake bed was carefully examined, and it was ascertained that underneath the top layer of soft mud was a continuous stratum of hard blue clay, which would give a firm and solid support to the proposed tunnel.

Ground was broken on the 17th of March, 1864. A shaft was sunk at each end, on shore and in the lake. The work on shore was easy enough, but the lake shaft required all the skill and courage of the engineers in charge. A huge wooden crib or coffer dam was built on shore and towed to its destination. It was heavily armored with iron, and was built as strong as human ingenuity could make it, and was provided with water tight compartments which could be filled with stone in order to steady it in its place in the lake. It was sunk in about thirty-five feet of water, which left about five feet of the structure above the surface of the waves. It was then fastened securely to huge screws driven ten feet into the bed of the lake.

In the centre of this crib was a well or open space, twenty-five feet in diameter, through which the shaft was to be sunk. The shaft was to be driven through the well of the crib thirty feet into the bed of the lake, making the depth in all sixty-six feet below the surface of the water. Seven cast-iron cylinders, each nine feet long, nine feet in diameter, and weighing about thirty thousand pounds each, were prepared for this purpose. One of these cylinders was suspended in the well, another was bolted on to it with a water-tight joint, and the cylinder was lowered and another fastened in the same way. The process was continued until the shaft, a solid iron tube, sixty-four feet deep, rested on the bottom, and forced its way by its own weight through the soft mud down to the hard blue clay beneath. Then the water was pumped out, the top closed, the air exhausted by a powerful steam engine, and the tube driven by atmospheric pressure down to the desired depth in the lake bed.

The shore end shaft was easily sunk. A cast-iron tube, similar to that used in the lake, was sunk to a distance of twenty-seven feet, making it lower than the lake shaft, causing a descent of two feet to the mile in the tunnel.

The work of excavating the tunnel was then begun at both ends. The tunnel is nearly a true cylinder of five feet diameter. It is walled up with the best of brick, and lined with cement eight inches thick. "A narrow railway was laid from the foot of each shaft as the work progressed, with turn-out chambers for the passage of meeting trains; and small cars, drawn by mules, conveyed the excavated earth to the hoisting apparatus, and brought back at every trip a load of brick and cement. The men worked in gangs of five at the excavation; the foremost removing a drift in the centre of the tunnel, about two and a half feet wide, the second breaking down the sides of the drift, the third trimming up the work to the proper shape and size, and the last two loading the earth into the cars. The bricklayers followed closely, only a few feet behind the miners. About one hundred and twenty-five men were employed,

in three relays, working about eight hours each, the only cessation being from twelve o'clock Saturday night to twelve o'clock Sunday night. A current of fresh air was constantly forced through the tube by machinery. It is remarkable that no accident from earth, gas, or water, occurred in the whole course of the work, sufficient to interrupt its progress."

The mining parties joined their work on the 17th of November, 1866. The accuracy with which the two lines of excavation met is something remarkable in the annals of engineering. The centre lines coincided within nine and a half inches, and the floors were joined with a difference of only one inch.

Water is let into the lake shaft by three gates. These are situated at different heights and on different sides of the shaft. The lowest is five feet from the bottom of the lake, the next ten, and the third fifteen feet. These gates can be opened or shut at pleasure. A solid granite structure will eventually enclose the lake shaft to protect it from the violence of storms, and the whole will be crowned with a light-house.

The water enters the lake shaft and flows through the tunnel into the shaft at the shore end, from which it is raised to the distributing reservoir by the pumping engines of the water-works. By means of this great work an unlimited supply of the purest water is furnished to the city. The great fire of 1871 destroyed the water-works, but did not injure the shaft or the tunnel, and the supply of water was interrupted only during the time occupied in restoring the water-works to their proper condition. The cost of the entire work was about one million of dollars, but its real value to the city cannot be estimated in figures.



THE MOUNT WASHINGTON RAILWAY.

Mount Washington is the highest of the White Mountain range, its summit being 6226 feet above the level of the sea. It has long been a favorite resort for tourists, as from its highest point may be obtained a view embracing in its extensive range the better part of New England. Formerly the long and difficult ascent was made on horseback. The summit is now more easily and agreeably reached by the Mount Washington Railway.

This road is a triumph of engineering skill. It was designed by Sylvester Marsh, an American engineer, and was built under his superintendence. The work was begun in 1866, and the road was completed and opened to the public in the summer of 1869. It has proved a complete success, and has revolutionized mountain travel in many parts of Europe. It was the model of the road up the Rhigi, in Switzerland, which is now patronized by nine-tenths of the visitors to that region.

The railroad is nearly three miles in length. It starts from the base of the mountain at a point about 2668 feet above tidewater, and ascends 3625 feet, to the summit of the mountain. For a considerable part of the way the road ascends the side of the mountain in a straight line from the starting point, and then winds around the side in a zigzag until the summit is reached. The maximum grade is 1980 feet to the mile, or a little more than one foot in three, and the average is nearly one foot in four. The road is built in the most substantial manner of massive timbers, interlaced and bolted, and resting on the solid rock of the mountain side. It is a model of strength and careful workmanship, and it is difficult to imagine how it could give way. It seems to every test almost as firm as the rocks upon which it rests.

The track consists of the usual rails, and of a centre rail of peculiar construction, designed to receive the motive power. It consists of two bars of iron with connecting cross pieces at a distance of every four inches. A centre cog wheel on the locomotive

plays into this rail, and secures a sure and steady mode of ascent and descent. The teeth of the cogwheel fit so closely and firmly into the centre rail that it is impossible for the locomotive to move without a revolution of this wheel. In case the machinery of the locomotive should break down, the brakes which connect with the cogwheel are so constructed as to hold it firm and enable it to retain its grip on the centre rail. The driving wheel of the locomotive is geared directly into a smaller wheel, which connects directly with the crank. Four revolutions of the engine are required to make one of the driving wheel, thus sacrificing speed to power. The engine is not connected to the car, but simply pushes the car up the track. On the return it allows the car to follow it at a slow rate of speed.

The ascent is slow and gradual, occupying about two hours, and affording ample time to enjoy the magnificent view, which in fair weather spreads out before the tourist, growing wider and grander at every successive stage of the ascent. Few who have made the ascent will ever forget the peculiar sensations experienced in this almost perpendicular climb.

The engines and cars used are of peculiar construction. Strength and safety are the chief considerations, and to these objects mere beauty and comfort are sacrificed.

THE NEW YORK CLEARING HOUSE.

The intricate and gigantic financial operations of the great monetary centre of the Union have been greatly simplified by an institution known as the "Clearing House," which fairly merits a place in this collection of remarkable things.

The building used and owned by the Clearing House stands at the corner of Nassau and Pine streets. Its exterior is of brownstone. It is five stories in height, having a frontage of thirty-seven feet on Nassau street, and a depth of eighty feet on Pine street. The first floor is leased to the Tenth National Bank, but the remainder of the building is used for Clearing House purposes. The interior decorations are very handsome, the rooms are large, lofty, and elegantly furnished. A spacious stone stairway on Pine street leads from the entrance to the upper stories. The first room on the right on the second floor as the visitor enters is the settling room. Next to this is the bank officers' parlor, where the meetings of the association are held. In front of this room are two smaller ones overlooking Nassau street, the corner room is a library and reading room, and the one adjoining is the manager's room. From this last a private stairway leads to the clearing room, which extends the entire length of the building, being lighted by numerous windows opening upon Nassau and Pine streets, and by a handsomely decorated skylight overhead. The gallery at the rear is set apart for the proof clerks. From this gallery the manager, whose desk is located there, gives the signal to begin the operation of exchange.

Before the New York Clearing House was established, the business of presentation was done by messengers. One bank would send to another its daily accumulation of drafts, and it, in return, would deliver whatever checks it held, which were due at the counter of the sending bank. Instead of settling daily, the account was allowed to run for a week, when the creditor bank drew its check upon the debtor bank, and the latter paid the amount in coin. By way of adjusting accounts a creditor bank would endorse a settlement check over to one to which it was indebted, thus transmitting as little bullion as possible. The time of many messengers was wasted by this unsystematic practice, and an intricacy of accounts was the inevitable result. Hence the dawning of the Friday settlement day invariably discovered all bank officers in a state of fear and trembling, an indisposition which was only relieved by the knowledge, at

the close of business, that their affairs were still prosperous, and that there was now another week before them in which to eat, drink, and be merry.

At length an organization was devised, pondered, and finally adopted, the workings of which amply equalled the fondest hopes of its projectors. This society was called the New York Clearing House Association. Now, instead of employing an army of messengers to scour all parts of the city, each bank sends two clerks to a stated place of meeting, where are assembled an equal number of clerks from every associated bank. One of these clerks attends to the *settling*, that is to say, he receives from the delivery clerks of the other banks the debits which have accumulated against his own. The other, who is intrusted with all the debits held by his bank against each of its associates (which debits are made up into separate packets, one packet for every bank), makes the *delivery*; in other words, he places the packets containing checks against bank number one into the hands of number one's receiving clerk, and so with number two and number three, until all his packets have been distributed.

Each bank knows the total amount of checks against other banks which it sends to the Clearing House, it only remains for the settling clerk to ascertain how much shall be taken away. The amount of checks one bank produces against all the others is credited to it on the books in the Clearing House; the amount all the others produce against it is charged to it. If the amount brought by any bank is in excess of the amount taken away, the balance resulting from such exchange, which is manifestly in its favor, is paid to it by the Clearing House. In a reversal of the case, the latter would collect from the former.

This association was established and its constitution adopted more than twenty years ago, and consisted of fifty-one banks as associate members. At present the number is fifty-nine. During the intervening time fourteen of the banks have failed, or otherwise liquidated their business. Of the banks and banking institutions in New York and its suburbs, possessing no membership in the Clearing House, forty-seven participate in its benefits by having their redemptions made through some one of the associate members. A Chairman and Secretary of the association are elected annually, also a standing committee, composed of five bank officers, whose duties are to guard the interests of the banks, appoint a manager, and engage the requisite clerical force, all of which latter, as well as the clerks sent from the banks, being, while at the Clearing House, under the manager's control.

Three long counters, four feet high, extend nearly the entire length of the room, leaving a space in front for a passage-way. These counters are divided by iron railings into spaces wide enough to allow standing room for the person who receives the packets, and in front of each desk is the name and number of the bank whose clerk is the occupant. Each bank is assigned a certain desk or division of counter, which it retains during its membership.

The hour of ten A. M. is the time for making the exchange. Before that time every bank must have sent two clerks to the Clearing House. When the volume of business is large, a third accompanies them to receive the packets, while the actual settling clerk, whose duty that usually is, puts the amount upon its balance sheet. The *exchanges*, or packets for delivery, are made up in each bank the day previous, by clerks of the second and third teller's departments, and the total amount of each is written on the outside of the packet. The settling clerk brings with him to the Clearing House a sheet of paper called a *statement*, which contains a list of the banks with the amount of the packets which the delivery clerk is to hand to the other banks. Upon entry, the footing of this statement is handed to one of the proof clerks, so that, before the work of exchange has been completed, part of the proof may be ready.

This proof consists of a list of total amounts sent by each bank, set against the total amounts taken away by them. If the work has been done correctly, these debtor and creditor columns will agree, and the debtor and creditor balance columns also.

THE OIL REGIONS.

About the close of the civil war it was discovered that certain portions of the United States were rich in petroleum oil, or, as it is more commonly called, coal oil. The discovery created an excitement which can be compared only with that occasioned by the discovery of gold in California. Thousands flocked to the oil regions; lands that were before considered almost worthless were sold for large sums if they were found to contain the precious deposit; and vast amounts of money were invested in operating the wells that were sunk for the collection of the oil. The excitement has long since subsided, and the oil regions have passed out of the period of feverish speculation into the calm and settled repose of legitimate and steady industry. Their business has not fallen off, however, but has grown in bulk and value every year.

Many parts of the country contain petroleum wells, but the true oil regions are situated in the northwestern corner of Pennsylvania, towards the shores of Lake Erie. They lie mainly in Venango and Crawford counties, beyond the Allegheny river. This region, at the time of the discovery of its oil wells, was comparatively unsettled and unimportant. It is now the centre of a large and active population, and new towns, some of them of considerable importance, have sprung up in it. Corry and Oil City have grown up in the last ten years, and are thriving towns, and Meadeville and Franklin, places of older date, have become centres of large and profitable business operations. Corry is a place of 4000 inhabitants, and is almost entirely devoted to the oil business.

Long before reaching the oil regions, the traveller encounters evidences of his approach to them in the long trains of cars bearing the oil to the markets of the Union. As he continues on his way, the whole country assumes a greasy appearance, and is redolent with the odor of petroleum. Once in the oil regions he hears nothing discussed but "wells," "oil," and "oil stocks," smells nothing but petroleum, the scent of which pervades everything, and seems to cling to every person and object in the whole district. Franklin, built on the site of the old French Fort Venango, Corry, and Oil City are the principal centres of the trade of the region, but the wells are scattered through the country, lying chiefly along French, Sugar, and Oil creeks. Whichever way one turns he may see the large cone-like structures for the pumping machinery of the wells rising against the sky, singly in some places, in groups in others.

The wells are sunk by means of boring machinery to a considerable depth, until the stream of oil is reached. During the first years of the business some of the wells were so active that the oil spouted a few feet above the surface of the ground, like the stream of an artesian well. This extraordinary activity has ceased, and the oil now lies in a thick crude state at the bottom of the wells, from which it is raised by steam pumps, and conveyed into tanks prepared for its reception. It is then subjected to a process of refining by which the pure oil is freed from the coarser mixture. It is then drawn off into barrels and shipped to the market. Some of the refineries are very extensive, and refine about 300 barrels of oil per day. All the oil, however, is not refined in the oil regions. The crude petroleum is shipped in bulk to Pittsburg, Philadelphia, Brooklyn, and other large cities and there refined. The city of Pittsburg turns out about \$11,000,000 worth of refined oil every year.

AMERICAN GLASSWARE.

Our country has become famous for its glass manufactories, which turn out in great quantities every species of glassware from the coarse green bottle to the most delicate and costly articles of table use or ornament. In the year 1870 there were 201 establishments in the United States engaged in the manufacture of glass, employing 15,812 hands and a capital of \$14,111,642, and producing annually wares valued at \$19,235,862.

In the manufacture of glass the highest skill and the utmost care are necessary. The furnace must be constructed with the greatest precision and of the best materials. The crucibles are made of clay, and must be prepared with care, must be without a flaw, and must be set in the furnace in the most exact manner.

One of the principal materials used in the manufacture of glass is kelp, or the calcined ashes of sea-weed. It is first put into a calcining furnace, where it is kept for twenty-four hours at a red heat, and then into cold water. After this it is sent to the mixing room and mixed with carbonate of soda and either lime or sand. The mixture is then placed in the crucible, which has been brought to an intense degree of heat. As it melts more is added to it until the crucible is filled. The heat is then increased and the mixture brought to a liquid state. It is then clear glass. This process is termed "founding," and occupies from twenty-four to thirty hours. At the end of this time the fire is slackened for two hours to enable the skimmer to clear or clean the surface, after which the mass is ready for the workmen.

The gatherer takes a hollow tube of iron about five or six feet in length, and having heated one end of it, gathers thereon a quantity of the melted glass sufficient for the use that is to be made of it. He works this and expands it by drawing it out and blowing through the tube, and then passes it to the blower, who fashions it by blowing through the tube and forcing out the soft metal into a hollow mass, and by shaping it with the instruments provided for that purpose, turning the tube and with it the mass rapidly all the while. In this way the soft hot glass is formed into the myriad shapes that delight the eye. Until within a period not many years back, and within the memory of the majority of workers in glass of to-day, the finest vases, goblets, decanters, and the most delicate-stemmed wine-glasses were blown by a workman who afterwards shaped them by rolling the blow-pipe holding the heated mass alternately to and from him rapidly, and applying to the hot metal a tool not unlike a pair of shears. The workman generally sat on a stool between two rails, known as the bullion bars, upon which he rolled his blow-pipe, passing it rapidly until, with the centrifugal movement produced by the motion and the manipulations of the tool described, he shaped a decanter, goblet, vase, or wine-glass of any desired pattern, and in an incredibly brief space of time. In this art, as in all others, modern invention has in a great measure superseded the more tedious processes of the olden time. By means of the improved processes it is now within the reach of the pockets of the poor to become the possessors of a set of elegant glassware. The new process, which is known as pressing, is far in advance of the old method, as by it not only forms but patterns without limit can be produced; whereas by the old style only plain glass of various shapes could be procured. And even at the present time the same kind of work can be produced only by the old process, the engravers' art being brought into requisition to relieve the plainness of the production. In the new process the mass of melted glass is gathered on the end of the blow-pipe, is worked by the operator and slightly distended by blowing. It is then placed in the mould and blown out to its

proper shape, or a mass of melted glass is placed in the mould and pressed into shape by an iron instrument made to fit in the mould.

The results of the new process, embracing as they do everything from plain to the most delicate and intricate designs in foliage and figures, are pressed in moulds made of iron, the production of which involves the expenditure of much labor and money. The mould for the goblet, straw-stem wine-glass, or tumbler, that may be procured for the merest trifle, costs from \$50 to \$150. The cost of moulds for a full set of glassware is sometimes as much as \$3000. American ingenuity has furnished us the means of decorating our tables, at a trifling outlay, with articles any one of which the sovereigns of the ancient world would have regarded as a great treasure.

The tools in general use in the glass factories are very few and are simple in construction. They consist, in the main, of the blow-pipe, of wrought iron, four or five feet in length, by which the molten mass is caught up from the pots; a punty, or rod of iron, which receives the article on its end when knocked from the pipe; spring tongs used to fashion ribbons of glass into handles; pucellas, or heavy spring shears, which are employed to give shape to the articles; the battledores of wood to assist in shaping; compasses, measuring stick and calipers. When a piece has been nearly finished on the pipe, a little red-hot lump of glass is dropped on the end and the punty applied. A slight blow on the pipe releases the vessel, and it is afterwards handled by the punty until that, in turn, is no longer necessary. When the various articles are finished as to shape and size, they are put into the annealing ovens for a few hours, after which all the roughness is filed or rubbed off.

The delicate engraving and the roughness of surface so much admired in glassware are done by means of a water or sand wheel, the figures having been previously traced on the surface. This is a very delicate operation, requiring great delicacy of touch as well as skilful workmanship, as the slightest slip of the hand or inequality of pressure may shatter the glass into a thousand pieces.

The manufacture of glass in this country was begun in New England. In 1790 Robert Hewes, a citizen of Boston, built a factory in a forest of New Hampshire, close to the Massachusetts line. His only production was window glass of a poor quality, and his enterprise resulted in failure. In 1800 another factory for the production of crown window glass was started, but it, like its predecessor, was unsuccessful. It was not until 1803, when a German named Lint undertook the manufacture, that it proved successful, the State of Massachusetts paying a bounty for every plate manufactured. Since then the business has grown rapidly, and has spread into other parts of the country.

THE NEW YORK POST-OFFICE.

The massive granite edifice now occupied by the New York Post-Office and the United States Courts is by far the finest building in the metropolis of the Union. The excavations for the foundations were begun on the 9th of August, 1869, and the edifice was completed in the autumn of 1875. The work was delayed very greatly during its first years for want of funds, Congress being very slow in making the necessary appropriations. The total cost of the building was \$3,000,000, which is reasonable enough considering its immense size, its beauty, and strength, and the magnificence of its internal decorations.

The building is a triangular structure, the three sides of which front on the City Hall Park, Broadway, and Park Row, respectively. The Park Row front is 278 feet long, and the other two fronts are 230 feet each in length. The extreme length of the

building from the Park front to the opposite extremity is 286 feet. The height from the sidewalk to the lantern on the south end of the building is 195 feet, to the pavilion 140 feet, and to the dome 182 feet. Below the sidewalk are a basement and a cellar, the cellar being 7 feet and the basement 14 feet high. Above these are five stories, the first, second, and fifth of which are set apart for the Post-Office, and the third and fourth for the Courts and offices connected with them. The first story is 29 feet high; all the other stories are 22 feet, with the exception of the District and Circuit Court rooms, which rise from the second to the fourth floor.

The portion of the building devoted to the Post-Office is admirably arranged for the transaction of the immense business of the department and for the accommodation of the public. The basement is the large working room of the Post-Office, where the mails are opened and packed, newspapers assorted, and all other work of that nature performed. A number of semicircular frames called "ovens," filled with pigeon holes—200 to 250 pigeon holes being in each "oven"—are among the principal features of this portion of the building. The pigeon holes are made unusually large, so that letters and packages can be thrown in with the greatest possible rapidity. Twenty large tables are also placed here for the purpose of emptying the mails upon them. On the southwest side of the basement is a large iron storeroom for the purpose of holding all the mail bags in the United States not in use. Wardrobe and other accommodations for the employés are also liberally provided in this portion of the building.

The floor on the street level is divided into corridors for the accommodation of the public and a large hall for the work of the office. The boxes and windows for the delivery of mail matter and for the sale of stamps and envelopes are on this floor. Partitions fifteen feet high divide the working space for the clerks from the wide corridors for the accommodation of the public. On the Broadway side are the receptacles for drop letters, where a new feature has been introduced which will, if properly carried out, greatly facilitate the business of despatching the mails and serve as a school of geography for those who daily post a great number of letters. The openings for the reception of mail matter are labelled with the names of the various States of the Union, and special drops are provided for the principal cities. By means of these drops persons mailing letters assist in assorting the immense mail that daily passes through the New York office. Some idea of the size of this mail may be gained from the following statement: The average number of domestic letters received and distributed daily by the New York office is 300,000; the number of foreign letters received 30,000; the number despatched 35,000; and the number of local letters received and distributed 120,000.

The Postmaster's private office is in the second story. He occupies a large room in the southwest front and a smaller one on the same side near the Park Row front. The office of the Assistant Postmaster is also on this floor. These offices are finely decorated.

The rooms facing Broadway on this floor are occupied by the Post-Office Money Order Department. One of these rooms—100 feet in length by 20 feet in width—contains a handsome mahogany screen counter, similar to those constructed in banks, with windows for fourteen clerks. Besides this, there are fourteen desks for receiving clerks, and thirty desks for the other clerks of the department. The rooms are otherwise handsomely furnished. The rooms in the Broadway wing, facing the light court, are used by searchers and money order clerks. In the opposite wing the rooms facing Park Row are occupied by the Post-Office Cashier's Department, the offices being of the same size and furnished in the same manner as those of the Money Order

Department. The apartment on this side, which is nearest the southwest front, is occupied by the Auditor, and is subdivided into two rooms by an ornamental counter and screen. The rooms in this wing looking upon the light court are used by the General Mail Agent.

On the side of the second story, facing City Hall Park, the room nearest Broadway is the United States District Court Room, measuring 36 by 60 feet. Its height is 40 feet, extending through the third story. The centre room on this side is for the United States Circuit Court, being 45 by 60 feet, and of the same height as the District Court Room. The room nearest Park Row is the Equity Term Room, 25 feet square and 20 feet in height. Between the courts are the private rooms of the judges, toilette rooms, etc. The walls and ceilings of the court rooms are in ornamented white, "hard finish." Opening upon the light court on this side are two rooms for male and female witnesses.

On the City Hall front of the third story, the room above the Equity Term Room, extending also over the judges' private rooms on the floor below, is used for the United States Criminal Term Room. It is of about the same size as the District Court, and extends in height through the fourth story.

In the Park Row wing the room nearest City Hall Park is occupied as the office of the Judge of the Circuit Court. The rooms adjoining this are used for the Clerk of the Circuit Court.

The rooms on the southwest front, and two rooms on Park Row, are used as the District Attorney's office. A circular room at the corner of the southwest and Broadway fronts is used by the United States Marshal, together with two rooms facing Broadway. The other rooms on Broadway are occupied by the Clerk of the District Court, with the exception of one which is used by the Judge of that court. The rooms facing the light court include waiting rooms and the office of one of the judges.

The fourth story contains the Law Library and offices for the District Court clerks and United States Marshals, the Circuit Court and District Attorney's clerks, and the Chief Supervisor of Elections and his clerks. The Law Library fills two magnificent rooms, with a small committee room between. The library consists of 18,000 volumes, nearly all of which are arranged on the shelves. Whatever of value is published in this country or Great Britain, bearing on legal subjects, is purchased for the library, which also contains a fine collection of about 600 volumes of French law books, with a lesser number of Spanish, Italian, and German works. The only libraries in this country which can compare favorably with it in its special scope are the Library of Congress at Washington, and the New York State Library at Albany.

The fifth story is used for the safe-keeping of the documents of the Post-Office Department.

The building is fire-proof throughout, and all the window-shutters, which are of iron two inches thick, are so arranged that in case of a fire from without threatening the building, they can be easily closed by persons within. Each floor is lighted by sixty large windows from the outside, and every floor, except the first, by twenty-one windows from the inside, the light coming to these latter by the open central spaces of the building. There are ten elevators in the building for mail matter, and four for passengers and general freight. Twelve of the elevators are worked by hydraulic pressure. The four passenger elevators run to the top of the building; the other ten from the basement to the first floor and gallery. Seven principal staircases rise from the first to the fifth story, and there are about twenty smaller ones to various points in the building. All the staircases are spiral and constructed of iron. There is a heater beneath each window, a faulight over every door, and ventilators in every room.

connecting with the top of the building. The cellar is occupied by heating apparatus for the whole building, by boilers and engines for running the elevators, and by other machinery.

In short, the building is one of the most complete in all its arrangements, as well as one of the most magnificent in the Union. It is one of the chief ornaments of the great city for the convenience of which it is intended, and is a model Post-Office in every respect, and as such worthy of the admiration of the whole country.

THE SALMON NURSERY IN CALIFORNIA.

The work of the United States Fish Commission is deeply interesting. We propose to present to the reader in this place some of the results accomplished in the culture of salmon on the Pacific coast. The United States Fish Commission for that region selected in 1872 a point on the McCloud river, in Shasta county, California, for the great salmon nursery. It is about twenty miles from the terminus of the Oregon & California Railroad, and about three miles from its junction with Pitt river, one of the largest tributaries of the Sacramento; and among all the beautiful spots in California, none more lovely or more grandly picturesque than this could have been chosen. It is peculiarly eligible from the fact that it is the best of the few water sites in California not injured for hatching purposes by the operations of the miner.

Almost overhanging the bank of the river a plain, substantial building about fifty feet in length has been erected, and divided into kitchen, dining-room, and sleeping apartments, for the accommodation of the large force employed during the hatching season. Immediately below this building a canvas tent, one hundred feet in length and thirty feet wide, is stretched, covering the hatching trough and supply reservoir. Here the river, about two hundred feet wide, sweeps over a natural bar with a strong, heavy current, falling into a large, deep pool below, where most of the salmon are taken. Across the former Mr. Stone, the Deputy Commissioner, and his men, have, with great labor, stretched a fence of willow poles reaching from bank to bank, safely anchored among the heavy boulders of the riffle, and presenting an almost impassable barrier to the salmon on their way to the spawning grounds of the upper stream. At the foot of the riffle an undershot wheel, twelve feet in diameter, furnished with long buckets on the inner periphery, and capable of lifting 12,000 gallons per hour, is set deeply and securely in the swift current. At the lower end of the tent are two large receiving tanks or reservoirs, into which the water is led from the wheel by a flume.

The fish are caught at night with the seine. They are then put into a crib floating at the side of the river, and secured by lines to the shore. The next day they are taken out, one by one, and gently pressed by hand until the eggs and milt are deposited in a vessel made for the purpose. The eggs of a healthy female will average 6000. When the eggs become impregnated they are placed in a trough, through which a stream of water is caused to run by the wheel referred to above.

Experience has demonstrated that no matter how pure the water of the river may seem, it is not sufficiently so to insure complete success in salmon hatching. Accordingly three flannel screens are placed in each of the tanks to prevent the passage of fungus, which gathers on the egg and prevents the egress of the young salmon, and every drop of water passing into the hatching troughs is filtered through these screens. From the tanks are led the hatching troughs, in eight strings of five each, making forty in all. An incline of one inch to each trough gives free circulation to the water, and a drop of three inches at the lower end serves to aerate it before passing through

the next. Suspended in every trough are seven trays, eleven inches wide, two feet long, and six inches deep, constructed of No. 5 wire cloth, and each capable of containing 30,000 eggs, thus placing the hatching capacity of the establishment at over 8,000,000 of young salmon in a season.

At the commencement of the spawning season there is no perceptible difference between the male and female head. As the season advances the upper jaw of the male protrudes over the under, and the snout forms an eagle-shaped beak, the under jaw fitting closely into the upper.

A marked peculiarity of the California salmon is the brevity of its life. It is estimated by Mr. Stone that "not one out of a hundred ever returns to the sea after spawning." Myriads of the dead fish line the banks of the McCloud in the months of October and November, after having completed their mission in life. The salmon of the Atlantic returns, season after season, to its early spawning ground. This, too, is the case with the salmon of the Danube, and of Great Britain generally.

The bridge or fence across the river, to which we have alluded, answers two purposes. It increases the power of the water at the wheel, and prevents the fish from ascending the river. Myriads of them may be seen below, anxiously searching for a place of escape. As they increase in numbers the agility of the fish is remarkable. Jumping from two to three feet in the air, turning somersaults, and cutting up all sorts of antics generally, they afford a very singular spectacle to the traveller. While in this state of excitement they will perform some of the most wonderful feats, as well as inflict upon themselves the greatest bodily torture. A fish from two to three feet long will often force himself out of the water, perfectly upright, and by a rapid undulation of the tail support himself from one to three minutes, surveying the surroundings for an opening in the fence to escape through. When unsuccessful it will often fall back, and then, with one tremendous leap, jump clear over the top of the fence, which is about two feet above the water's edge. The question arises whether the bridge, in preventing the salmon from ascending the river and spawn, will not tend to depopulate the river; it being remembered that the fish always return to spawn in the place where they were hatched. This is offset by putting a certain portion of the artificially hatched salmon back into the river.

The advantage of this station may be estimated by looking at the cost of the eggs as heretofore purchased. Until the establishment of the works on the Penobscot river, the Government paid Canada forty dollars per thousand for the eggs. The works on the Penobscot reduced the cost to about three dollars; while the establishment on the McCloud river furnished them, in the season of 1875, at about one dollar and a half per thousand.

THE FAST MAIL SERVICE.

Probably no branch of the public service shows such marked improvement as does the Post-Office Department. The contrast between what it was when the Federal Government was first formed, in 1789, and what it is at present is so striking as to be almost incredible. Then lumbering wagons, stage coaches, slow-sailing vessels, horse-back riders, and sometimes pedestrians were the means used to carry the mails from place to place; and what with the delay of transportation and the lack of system in the whole management of the Post-Office, our worthy ancestors must have had but a faint gleam of the inestimable value of the system that in our day works so smoothly and effectively, and makes the mail our most useful and trusted servant. Step by step

postal reform and improvement have been advancing, until perfection has almost been reached.

The railway mail service began in 1836, but it was not until 1864 that Colonel George B. Armstrong suggested the plan, which was subsequently adopted, of putting "post-office cars" on the railway lines. On the 28th day of August, 1864, the first postal car left Chicago for Clinton on a trial trip, and on the 31st of the same month it began running regularly. In October, 1864, improvements were made in the postal car, and a force of expert clerks from the Department at Washington was placed in the cars running between New York and that city. On the 9th of November post-office cars were placed upon the lines between Chicago and Davenport, Iowa, and Chicago and Dunleith, Illinois. On the 17th of January, 1865, the Chicago, Burlington, & Galesburg-Quincy lines were established, and on May 22d the first railway post-office service was put in operation on the Philadelphia-Pittsburgh line. About the same time, or a little later, postal cars were placed upon all the principal lines leading out of Chicago, and also upon the Hudson River & New York Central Railroads, between New York, Albany, and Buffalo, carrying and distributing along the line Northern and Western mails.

The establishing of fast mail trains has been a pet scheme of the Post-Office Department for several years, and Colonel George S. Bangs, General Superintendent of Mail Routes, has worked industriously to perfect the system. He met with much opposition from railroad officials, who complained that the compensation for running postal cars was insufficient. So strong was the dissatisfaction of the companies that in the summer of 1873 the Presidents of some of the leading lines threatened to withdraw the postal cars. The grievance of the railroad companies was the law which limited the compensation of mail carriers to \$375 per mile per annum, no matter how much weight of mail matter was carried. By talking with the various representatives of the dissatisfied roads Mr. Bangs became instrumental in averting the calamity which such a withdrawal of the postal cars would certainly have been. Subsequently, after a great deal of legislation, the basis of payment for the transportation of mails was changed by Congress to something more equitable, and the new law rendered a concentration of mail matter on any one line mutually profitable to the line and to the department. This is easily understood. This settlement opened the way for pushing the subject of fast mails, and after long discussions with railroad officials a plan for lightning postal trains between the East and the West was perfected.

About the 1st of July, 1875, the officers of the New York Central Railroad announced their willingness to run a mail train from New York to Chicago in twenty-six hours. The proposition from the Central road was at once accepted by the Department, and almost immediately afterwards came a similar proposal from the Pennsylvania Railroad, which was also gladly accepted. Specifications and plans for the new equipment necessary to carry out this undertaking were furnished each road, and the construction of postal cars was immediately begun.

The 16th of September was fixed upon as the date for the inauguration of the new enterprise, and on that day the two special trains started from New York, each carrying a large mail, Post-Office officials, and invited guests.

The New York Central train left the Grand Central Depot, in New York, at 4.15 A. M., and the Pennsylvania train started from Jersey City at 4.30 A. M.

Previous to this the rivalry between the two roads had led to some little dissension, and had resulted in the Pennsylvania Company despatching a "limited mail" on September 13th. The officers of that company state that when they offered to run a fast mail and fast newspaper train to Cincinnati and St. Louis, the Post-Office authori-

ties accepted the offer, and requested the company to have its cars ready by September 12th. This gave the company only thirteen days in which to build the cars. The work was accomplished by the prescribed time; but the Post-Office authorities, on being informed that the New York Central Railroad cars were not ready, declined to send any mail matter until the 16th. The Pennsylvania Railroad Company was not willing to wait until the New York Central Railroad should be ready, and accordingly sent out its first train on the 13th. This train left Jersey City at 4.45 A. M., and arrived at its destination on time.

The postal car used on these fast trains is of peculiar construction. It is of ordinary width, but sixty feet in length. It is built of white pine wood, and is painted white inside and out. Internally the car is divided into three compartments. The first of these contains 975 pigeon holes, each of them representing a station. A shelf surrounding the holes is used for the purpose of sorting the letters. Letter drops, with their apertures to the outside of the car, are in this compartment, and may be used by persons just as the ordinary drops are. The next compartment of the car is fitted up with boxes and hooks for the reception of mail bags and newspapers destined for the way stations. Behind this, and in the last compartment, are a number of boxes arranged in rows. One side of these boxes is open, while the opposite side is closed by a door on hinges. From hooks in these boxes the mail bags are suspended, and the newspapers, as fast as sorted, are thrown through the boxes into the bags, each of which represents a station. The cars are well heated, ventilated, and lighted, and are provided with all the new arrangements for keeping out sparks of fire from the locomotives. Each car is accompanied by a tender, which is simply an ordinary express car, and is used for storing the mail bags not in use. Each train is in charge of a Chief Clerk, who has a private office in the car provided with desk and other conveniences.

The trains stop only at the principal stations. At the others the mail is delivered and received by means of the patent "catchers" with which each car is provided. By means of these the bags are hung out from the car and thrown off at the proper station. The bags to be taken on board are suspended from a post at the station provided for the purpose, and are caught by the iron arm or "catcher" attached to the car, and thrown into it without damaging the bag or causing any slackening in the speed of the train.

The fast mail trains have proved of the greatest benefit to the community, and it would now be difficult to dispense with them.

THE MANUFACTURE OF TOBACCO.

This is such a strictly American industry, and has attained such an important rank among our manufactures, that it merits a place in this record. The principal tobacco factories are located in Richmond, Lynchburg, Petersburg, and Danville, in Virginia, and these turn out the bulk of the chewing tobacco used in commerce. The factories are large buildings, generally constructed of brick, and are often five or six stories in height, with flat roofs surrounded by a wooden railing.

On the first floor is located the steam engine, which not only supplies the motive power for the machinery employed in the establishment, but warms the whole building, and furnishes the amount of heat necessary for the various stages of the process of manufacture.

All the tobacco sent to Richmond for sale is stored in the immense warehouses provided by the State for its reception, where it is inspected, properly graded, and

finally sold. The sales are by sample. Each sample is ticketed and marked with the name of the planter by whom the crop of which it forms a part was grown, the gross and net weight of the hogshead from which it was taken, the warehouse where it was inspected, the merchant who sold it, and the price paid by the manufacturer. Thus the whole history of the hogshead from which the sample was taken is written upon the ticket, and should the manufacturer find the hogshead to fail to correspond with the representations upon which he purchased it, he can trace the responsibility to the proper party.

Upon being conveyed to the factory the hogsheads are raised by an elevator to the "stemming room," where the casing of the hogshead is removed and the tobacco exposed to a steam bath. The room is air-tight, and the steam is forced into it and permeates every particle of the tobacco. This renders it soft and fit for stemming. It is then placed in bulk and carefully covered with blankets in order to enable it to retain the moisture until the process of "stemming" can be accomplished.

The stemmers are usually negro women and children. It may be here stated that the majority of the hands engaged in the Southern tobacco factories are negroes. The stemmers take the leaves, which the steaming has rendered as soft as the finest kid, and strip them of the "stem." They are then tied in bundles, the inferior quality of stems being used to bind them. The best stems are laid aside and are packed in hogsheads and shipped to Bremen, where they are made into snuff. The stemmers are paid so much per pound for the tobacco they stem. This is weighed by the superintendent of the stemming room, who keeps the accounts of the hands in his department with scrupulous exactness.

The bundles of stemmed leaves are then hung on sticks, and are suspended in the drying room until they become perfectly dry. When dry they are ready to receive the "flavoring mixture" of syrup and licorice, which gives to chewing tobacco the sweetness and flavor so much appreciated by the users of that article.

The mixture is prepared in huge iron kettles. A good article of sugar-house molasses is cooked to a candy and is mixed with Spanish licorice, which has been previously dissolved in water. The mixture is then brought to the proper consistency by boiling, being stirred all the while by men with large wooden paddles to prevent its burning. In some of the factories as much as two hundred gallons of molasses are used daily for this purpose.

As soon as the mixture is prepared it is poured boiling hot into a large trough. The dried bundles of tobacco are then dipped into the steaming fluid. If the leaves are not perfectly dry when subjected to this immersion they will mould rapidly and become hopelessly ruined. The heat of the bath causes the pores of the leaf to expand, and every particle of the tobacco absorbs the sweet syrup and becomes thoroughly saturated with it.

Besides the leaves, there are a lot of odds and ends of tobacco, termed "clippings," which are too small to be dipped in the bath. The mixture is applied to these by sprinkling it from a watering-pot.

The bundles, dripping with the liquid, are carried from the bath to the flat roof of the building and there exposed to the sun. Manufacturers declare that one day's sunshine is worth all the artificial heat they can command, as it gives to the tobacco a sweetness which nothing else will. Should a rain come on all hands are ordered to the roof and the tobacco is taken into the house at once. A drenching with water would ruin it at this stage.

After being exposed to the sun for a day, the leaves are taken to the second drying room and subjected to a heat of ninety degrees during the day, and at night the heat

is increased to such a degree that the room is so hot in the morning that the workmen cannot enter it until it has been cooled. This process is continued until the tobacco is perfectly dry. The tobacco is then sprinkled plentifully with the best New England rum, which has been flavored with certain essential oils. It thus receives an additional flavor and is rendered damp and pliable for the final working. It is now covered carefully with blankets, and as soon as possible is delivered to the "lumpers and twisters" in the twist room.

The twist room generally occupies the length of the whole building, and is arranged with the utmost exactness. At the upper end stands the desk of the Superintendent. The tall work-benches of the operatives are arranged in parallel rows down the long room. The benches are double, being divided by a partition down the middle, and the workmen are placed at opposite sides, facing each other. They stand during their work. Each man is furnished with a gauge for regulating the length of his lump or twist, and a scale in which to verify its weight. Perfect exactness is necessary in size and weight, in order that the lumps may fit exactly into the shapes in which they are to be pressed. Indeed, throughout the whole process of manufacture everything is done by an invariable rule, and no one is allowed to leave anything to chance or guesswork. Every process is carefully tested.

A supply of the prepared leaves is placed upon the lumper's bench. He takes them and works them with his fingers into the proper shape, and around the lump thus formed wraps a leaf of the virgin tobacco which has been stripped of its stems, but has undergone no drying or flavoring. This forms the outside wrapper, and prevents the lump from sticking to the press in the final process. As the lumps are completed the lumper slips them into his gauge, and cuts off the ends which project with a "tobacco cutter," and then weighs the lump in his scale, taking from or adding to the filling until the exact weight desired is obtained. When the lumps are correct they are placed in a box provided for that purpose on the bench in front of the worker. Every lumper has an assistant. This individual is a boy, whose principal duty it is to stem and hand him the leaves for his outside wrappers. This boy waits on his lumper exclusively. The lumpers pay their assistants out of their own wages, giving them from one to two dollars per week; the boy, if intelligent, having the advantage of learning the trade of his employer. The most expert "lumpers" earn from twelve to fifteen dollars per week.

The lumpers in regular rotation carry their work to the Superintendent of the twisting room for inspection. He examines and weighs each lump separately, and throws out all which vary in the least degree from the standard. Those which are found correct are then weighed collectively, and the lumper is credited with the weight. The defective lumps are thrown back upon the workman's hands to be remade until they conform to the standard. The lumps having been inspected by the Superintendent, are packed by the lumper or his assistant into boxes furnished for the purpose. These boxes, when full, are taken to the press room, where the lumps are fitted into the "shapes," which are large shallow pans of sheet-iron, subdivided into compartments the exact size of the "plugs" that are to be made. Over each shape is placed a cover of thick wood, faced with sheet-iron, and intersected by grooves which fit the lines of the sheet-iron subdivisions which separate the shape itself. When the shapes are filled they are placed under hydraulic presses, of which each factory has a number, and are subjected to a pressure of three hundred and twenty-five tons. The cover of the shape is forced down upon it, and the lumps of tobacco are pressed firmly and evenly into the flat plugs of commerce with which every one is familiar.

Upon being removed from the presses the plugs are found a little ragged at the

edges. Every piece is therefore turned and put under the press again so that all the sides may be uniform and smooth. The moulds are carefully oiled with the best olive oil every time the tobacco is placed in them, to prevent its sticking to them.

The plugs are now taken to a second row of presses, and after having been fitted together exactly on sheets of tin—with one sheet of tin between every two sheets of tobacco—they are pressed a third time. This gives the sheets of tobacco the exact length and width of the box in which they are to be packed for shipping. After coming out of these presses the sheets will fit in the boxes, which are made of regular specified sizes, as evenly as the most intricate machinery is joined together. The packing boxes are made of buttonwood, or sycamore, imported from Canada. A single factory will use as much as 30,000 feet per week.

The plugs are packed in the cases, which are then placed in a third row of presses for the final compressure. In order to prevent the bursting of the boxes by the immense pressure to which they are subjected, they are placed in stout frames called "billies," which protect the wood and save it from the force of the strain. After being removed from the press the cases are closed and nailed, and after the revenue stamps and the brand of the manufacturer are affixed, the tobacco is ready for the market.

Smoking tobacco is manufactured with less labor and expense. The tobacco, after being removed from the hogshead, is dried to the utmost, and is passed through a mill in which a revolving cylinder, armed with short blunt teeth, grates it into tiny particles. The same machine then passes it through a series of sieves similar to those of a wheat fan. The coarser particles which are left on the upper sieve are passed and repassed through the mill until all is ground to the required fineness. The leaves are not stemmed for this purpose, the stems which are too coarse to pass through the finer sieves being used to make an inferior article of smoking tobacco.

Smoking tobacco is generally put up in bags holding from two ounces to one pound each, the Government fixing one pound as the maximum weight for a single package. The bags are drawn tightly over hollow iron cylinders, and into these the tobacco is packed by forcing upon it a wooden mallet worked by a treadle. When the cylinder is packed tight and full, it is withdrawn, leaving the closely-packed tobacco in the bags. An immense number of bags are used in this business.

THE ICE MOUNTAIN.

In Hampshire county, West Virginia, there is a remarkable natural curiosity known as the Ice Mountain. It is situated on the eastern bank of the North river, a branch of the Capon, and is about twenty-six miles northwest of Winchester, and sixteen miles east of Romney. It is between four and five hundred feet in height. For about a quarter of a mile the west side of the mountain is covered with a mass of stones very loose and of a light color, which reaches down to the bank of the river.

By removing the loose stone, pure crystal ice can always be found in the warmest days of summer. It has been discovered even as late as the 15th of September, but never in October, although it may exist throughout the entire year, and be found if the rocks were excavated to a sufficient depth. The body of the rocks where the ice is found is subject to the full rays of the sun from nine o'clock in the morning until sunset. The sun does not have the effect of melting the ice as much as continued rains. At the base of the mountain is a spring of water colder by many degrees than spring water usually is. The owner of the property has removed the stone not far from the spring, and has erected a small log dairy for the preservation of his milk,

butter, and fresh meats. Kercheval states that when he saw this building, "which was late in the month of April, the openings between the logs (on the side next the cavity from which the stone had been taken out), for eighteen inches or two feet from the floor, were completely filled with ice, and about one-half the floor was covered with ice several inches thick." Mr. Deevers, who was at that time the owner of the property, informed him "that milk, butter, or fresh meats of every kind are perfectly safe from injury for almost any length of time in the hottest weather. If a fly venture in he is immediately stiffened with the cold and becomes torpid. If a snake in his rambles happens to pass over the rocks covering the ice he soon loses all motion and dies." Reliable persons assert that several instances have occurred of snakes being found frozen to death among the rocks covering the ice. "Mr. Deevers stated that he had several times removed torpid flies from his dairy into a more temperate atmosphere, when they soon recovered life and motion and flew off."

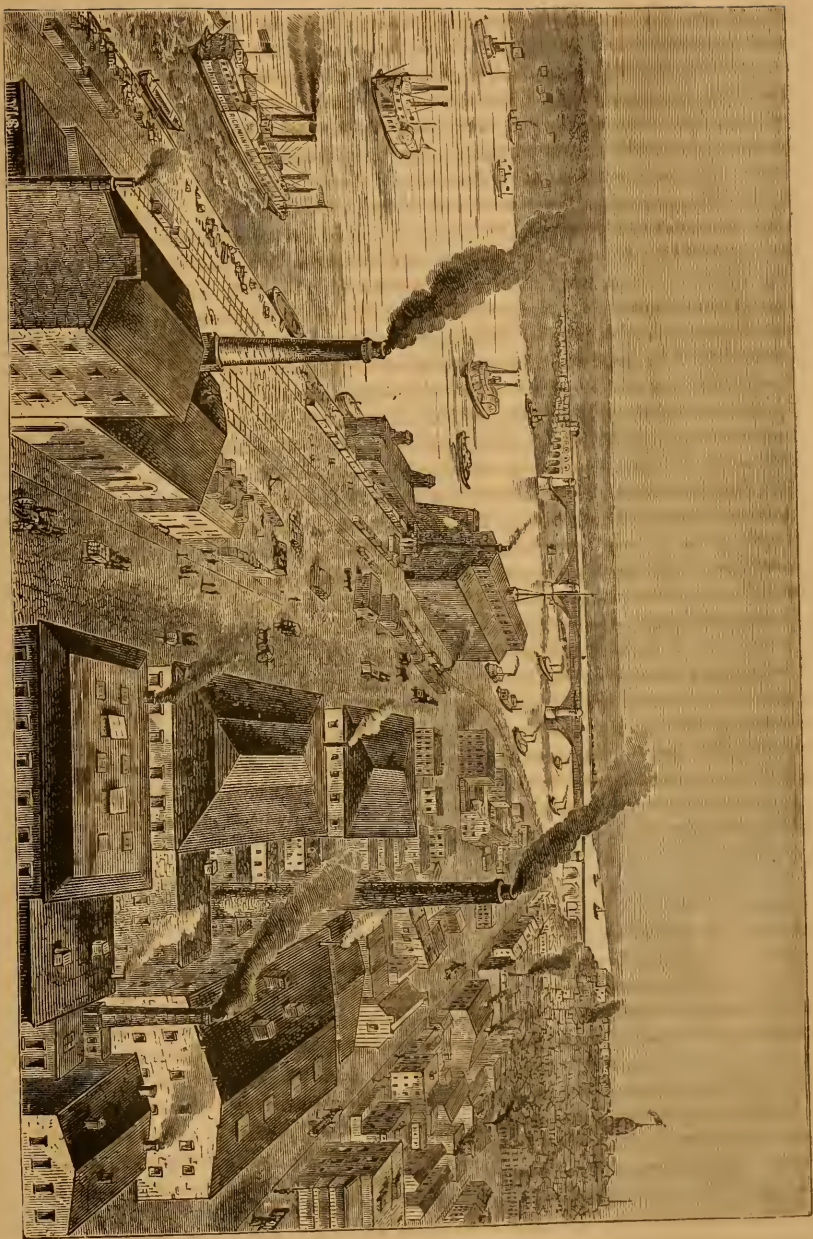
Mr. C. B. Hayden, in a communication to "Silliman's Journal," some forty years ago, thus endeavored to account for the phenomenon of the preservation of ice in this mountain: "The solution, I conceive, is to be found in the large and unusual collection of rocks, which from their porous, homogeneous texture are extremely poor conductors of heat. One side of the mountain consists of a massive wall many hundred feet in thickness, and heaped up against this as an abutment is a mass of rocks containing several thousand cubic feet. As the mountain has a general direction from N. E. to S. W., the talus heap containing the ice has a N. W. exposure. The cavernous nature of this heap would admit the free entrance of atmospheric waters, which during the winter would form ice in the interior of the mass. The ice thus situated would be protected from external heat by the surrounding rocks, as ice in a refrigerator is isolated and protected from the external temperature by the non-conducting sides of the refrigerator. The Ice Mountain only requires for the explanation of its phenomenon the application of the familiar principle upon which is constructed the common refrigerator, which temporarily effects what the Ice Mountain permanently does—a temperature independent of external causes. The Ice Mountain is, in fact, a huge sandstone refrigerator, whose increased and unusual effects beyond those of the ordinary refrigerator are due to the increased and unusual collection of poor-conducting materials which form its sides."

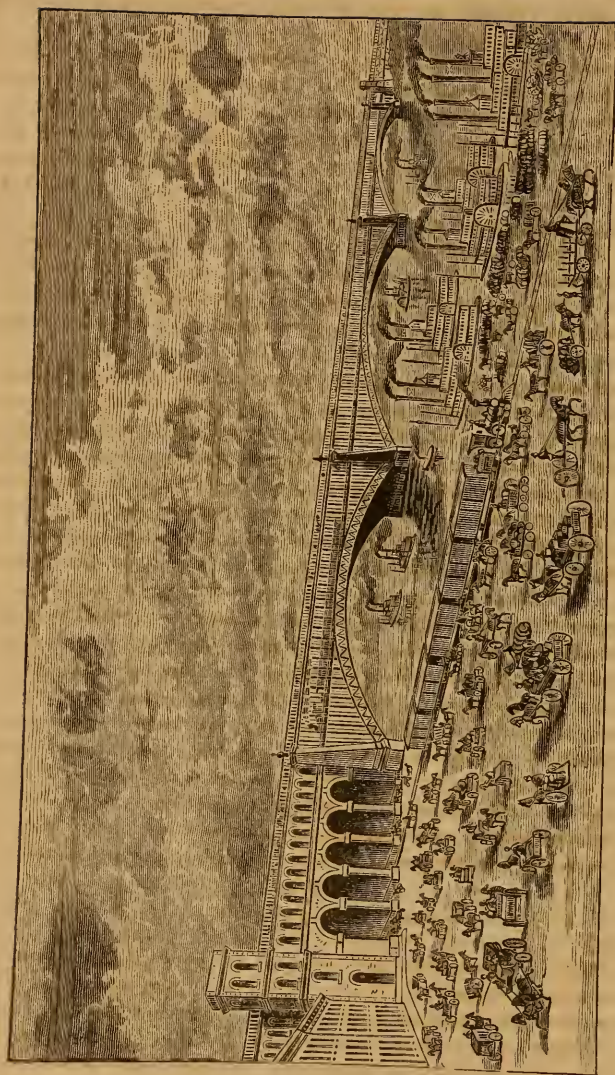
THE NATURAL BRIDGE.

This remarkable formation of the natural rock has long been known as one of the principal curiosities of the many to be found in the State of Virginia. It is situated in the county of Rockbridge, about fourteen miles southwest of Lexington. It consists of an immense mass of rock which spans the deep ravine through which flows a little stream called Cedar Creek. The sides of the ravine are of massive rock rising perpendicularly from the bed of the stream. The rock structure which forms the bridge is flung across the ravine in a massive but graceful arch, seeming more the work of art than of nature. The mean height of the bridge is 215 feet from the stream below to the roadway; its average width is 80 feet, its length 93 feet, and its thickness 55 feet.

The arch constituting the bridge is of limestone rock, covered to the depth of from four to six feet with alluvial and clayey earth, and based upon huge rocks of the same geological character, the summits of which are ninety feet and their bases fifty feet apart. The county road leads over the bridge, and the structure has been used since

ST. LOUIS.





THE ST. LOUIS BRIDGE.

the settlement of the region for the ordinary purposes of travel. A natural parapet of rock extends along the sides of the bridge, which are still further protected by a thick growth of trees and shrubbery. So perfectly do these screen the ravine from view that visitors constantly pass over the bridge without being aware that they have reached it.

The only satisfactory view of the bridge is obtained from the bed of the ravine below. Looking up to the dizzy height at which the gigantic arch springs across the abyss, it is hard to believe that the structure is not the work of a race of giants. The arch is elliptical in form, and the whole structure has a picturesque appearance impossible to describe in words. The lines of masonry seem perfectly defined, and the piers appear to be laid in gigantic blocks. The rocks have a soft, pleasant hue which harmonizes well with the beauty of the surrounding landscape.

"A hot and brilliant day," says a traveller, "is, of all others, the time to enjoy this object. To escape from a sun which scorches you, into these verdant and cool bottoms, is a luxury of itself which disposes you to relish everything else. When down I was very careful of the first impression, and did not venture to look steadily on the objects about me until I had selected my station. At length I placed myself about one hundred feet from the bridge, on some masses of rock which were washed by the running waters and ornamented by the slender trees which were springing from its fissures. At my feet was the soothing melody of the rippling, gushing waters. Behind me, and in the distance, the river and the hills were expanding themselves to the light and splendor of day. Before me, and all around, everything was reposing in the most delightful shade, set off by the streaming rays of the sun, which shot across the head of the picture far above you, and sweetened the solitude below. On the right and left the majestic rocks arose with the decision of a wall, but without its uniformity; massive, broken, beautiful, and supplying a most admirable foreground; and everywhere the most delicate stems were planted in their crevices and waving their heads in the soft breeze which occasionally came over them. The eye now ran through the bridge and was gratified with a lovely vista. The blue mountains stood out in the background; beneath them the hills and woods gathered together so as to enclose the dell below; while the river, which was coursing away from them, seemed to have its well-hidden head in their recesses. Then there is the arch, distinct from everything and above everything! Massive as it is, it is light and beautiful by its height, and the fine trees on its height seem now only like a garland of evergreens; and, elevated as it is, its apparent elevation is wonderfully increased by the narrowness of its piers, and by its outline being drawn on the blue sky, which appears beneath and above it."

THE ST. LOUIS BRIDGE.

The bridge over the Mississippi river at St. Louis is one of the most superb structures in the world, and the costliest of its kind in this country. It was built under the superintendence of Captain James B. Eads, and is owned by a stock company.

The bridge rests upon four immense piers built in the river. The portion of the piers which lies under water is composed of a firm, magnesian limestone, yellowish in color, taken from the quarries at Grafton, Illinois. From two feet below low-water mark to two feet above high-water mark the exterior of the piers, including those on the wharves and abutments, is of the best quality of granite. Above the granite the exterior is entirely of cut sandstone. A granite course eight feet in thickness is laid through the channel piers and in the abutments, to receive the heavy cast-iron plates against which the ends of the arches rest.

The bridge has three spans, each formed with four ribbed arches made of cast-steel. The central span is 520 feet, and the end spans each 500 feet in the clear. The four arches forming these spans consist each of an upper and lower curved rib, extending from pier to pier, and a horizontal system of bracing extends between these ribs for the purpose of securing the arches in their relative distances from each other. The two centre arches of each span are thirteen feet nine and a half inches apart from centre to centre, and the upper member of one arch is secured to the lower one of the other by a system of diagonal bracing. The roadways are formed by transverse iron beams twelve inches in depth, suitably separated. From the opposite ends of the iron beams forming the roadways a double system of diagonal, horizontal iron bracing binds the whole together.

The bridge is a double structure. The upper portion is for vehicles and pedestrians, and is fifty-four feet two inches in width. The roadway is thirty-four feet wide between the footwalks, which are eight feet in width. The sides are protected by a handsome iron balustrade ornamented with gas lamps. Below this floor of the bridge are the railway passages, each fourteen feet six inches in the clear and eighteen feet high.

At each end of the bridge the road and railways are carried over the wharves on five stone arches, each twenty-six feet wide. The railway passages are enclosed throughout the whole length of these arches by a cut stone arcade of twenty arches, supporting the upper roadway. On the St. Louis side the railway is carried on brick arches from the end of these passage-ways into the tunnel on Third street. On the Illinois shore the railways descend to the level of the East St. Louis railways by a descending grade of one and a half feet in one hundred for a distance of 3000 feet. The carriage-way on the Illinois side descends with a grade of four feet in one hundred, and on the Mississippi side the grade is nearly level.

The bridge accommodates two double tracks of steam railways in the lower story, and above there is space for street railways, vehicles of all styles, and pedestrians; and the plan is so arranged that none of these interfere with each other. The bridge is so constructed as not to be an obstacle to the navigation of the river.

The strength of the bridge is enormous. The three arches are capable of sustaining 28,972 tons before giving way—a much greater load than will ever be placed upon it. If the bridge were loaded with people from one end to the other, the strain upon the arches would be less than one-sixth of what they are capable of sustaining. The piers and abutments were designed with a view to sustain either span when thus loaded, even if the others were entirely unloaded, and to sustain either span entire if, from any cause, the adjoining ones should be destroyed.

On the 2d of July, 1874, the formal test of the strength of the bridge was made. Two trains of locomotives, weighing 560 tons altogether, fourteen in all, were moved out abreast, and simultaneously over each one of the three spans. The deflection of the middle span was three and a half inches; of each side span three inches. The two trains moving abreast upon each arch was the severest possible test to produce distortion of the curve of each arch. Ten locomotives were then coupled together, and these were run over each track on each side of each arch of the entire bridge, covering the entire track of each span, and throwing the whole weight of the train—400 tons—on one side of each span. This test was applied to each side of the bridge, and produced the severest twisting strain to which each arch can be subjected. The vertical deflection produced by this test on the centre span was two and one-half inches. The locomotives thus coupled were run at a speed of ten miles per hour. The local traffic on the upper roadway of the bridge was uninterrupted during the

progress of the tests. The instruments failed to detect any side motion whatever during the test.

The bridge is one of the most useful as well as one of the most magnificent public works in the Union. It brings St. Louis in direct communication with the States east of the Mississippi, and must unquestionably contribute in a marked degree to the advancement and growth of the prosperity and wealth of the metropolis of the Southwest.



MUSIC BY TELEGRAPH.

Mr. Elisha Gray, of Chicago, a gentleman who has already become famous in the electric telegraph world as an inventor and maker of telegraphic apparatus, perfected during the year 1874 an instrument which will convey sound by electricity over an unbroken current of an extraordinary length; that is, without the aid of automatic repeaters. In the ordinary transmission of messages over the telegraph wires to points at long distances, a message is generally repeated by automatic working instruments about every five hundred miles, in order to renew the current of electricity. Mr. Gray has succeeded in transmitting sounds which are distinctly audible at the receiving point, over an unbroken circuit of 2400 miles. This is more properly speaking a discovery and not an invention. The invention merely consists in adapting certain appliances to the discovery for the purposes of its practical illustration. Music played on a small melodeon or piano key-board, transmitted through an unbroken circuit of 2400 miles, is reproduced on a violin attached to the receiving end of the wire. Mr. Gray played "Hail Columbia," "The Star Spangled Banner," "God Save the Queen," "Yankee Doodle," and other well-known airs, and they were unmistakably repeated, note for note, on the violin which lay on a table near at hand.

The apparatus by means of which this extraordinary feat in telegraphy is accomplished has been named by Mr. Gray the "Telephone," or an instrument designed for the purpose of transmitting sound to a distance. It consists of three general parts: First. The transmitting instrument. Second. The conducting wire, running to a distant point. Third. The apparatus for receiving the sound at that distant point. The transmitting apparatus consists of a key-board having a number of electro-magnets corresponding with the number of keys on the board, to which are attached vibrating tongues or reeds tuned to a musical scale. Any one of these tongues can be separately set in motion by depressing the key corresponding to it. Thus a tune may be played by manipulating the keys in the same way as those of an ordinary piano or melodeon. The music—produced entirely by electricity—of these notes is so distinctly audible in the next room that, in spite of much talking, there is no difficulty in determining what tune the manipulator is playing. To this transmitting instrument the conducting wire is attached, the other end being attached to the receiving apparatus, which may be anything that is sonorous, so long as it is in some degree a conductor of electricity. A violin, with a thin strip of metal stretched between the strings at a point where the bridge of the instrument is ordinarily placed, will, on receiving the sound transmitted through the conducting wire from the piano, give out a tone very similar in quality to that of a violin. If, then, the metallic strip is electrically connected with a wire, say 500 or 1000 miles long, which has its distant end properly connected with the transmitting instrument, any one at the receiving end can distinctly hear, without the aid of electro-magnetism, the tune or air which is being played 500 or 1000 miles away from him, if he properly manipulate the receiving apparatus.

The length of the wire connecting the transmitting with the receiving apparatus may be one mile or ten thousand miles, provided that the isolation is sufficiently good to prevent the escape of the electric current before it reaches its destination. In fact, there seems no limit to the distance to which sound of any desired pitch may be thus conveyed with from two to five cells of battery, all the conditions being proper. The quality or timbre of the tones depends upon the character of the receiving apparatus, which may be a violin prepared as described above; a tin hoop, with foil paper heads stretched over it after the fashion of a baby's rattle; a nickel five-cent piece; an old oyster can, and a thousand other things. A sound sufficiently loud to read Morse's telegraphic characters—made by interrupting, with the common telegraphic key, one sustained note—has been obtained under favorable circumstances at the receiving end of the wire without any more scientific sounding apparatus than that of a piece of common tissue paper.

THE CROTON WATER-WORKS.

The rapid growth of the city of New York made the question of supplying it with pure water one of the greatest importance. It was believed at one time that an adequate supply could be drawn from the Broux river, which stream was thought capable of furnishing 3,000,000 gallons daily. The prevalence of Asiatic cholera in 1832 impressed upon the people the necessity of a supply of pure drinking water; and the great fire of 1835 convinced them that an abundant supply of water for all purposes was indispensable. It was resolved to obtain this supply from the head-waters of the Croton river, and in May, 1837, the work on the aqueduct which was to convey it to the city was actually begun. On the 4th of July, 1842, the Croton water was distributed through the city.

The first step in the great work was to throw a massive dam across the Croton river, by means of which the Croton lake was formed, the water being raised to a depth of forty feet by the obstruction. From this dam an aqueduct, constructed of brick, stone, and cement, was built to convey the water to the reservoirs prepared for it on Manhattan island.

The aqueduct is nearly forty miles in length. It is arched above and below, forming a hollow cylinder seven and a half feet wide and eight and a half feet high, with an inclination of thirteen inches to the mile. It rests upon the ground for a portion of its course, and in other parts is supported by a series of stone arches. It crosses twenty-five streams in Westchester county, besides numerous brooks which flow under it through culverts. It is conveyed across the Harlem river by means of the High Bridge, the water flowing through vast iron pipes the size of the aqueduct, which rest upon the bridge. The bridge itself is a magnificent structure of stone, 1450 feet in length, with fifteen arches, the highest of which is one hundred feet above high-water mark. Its great height prevents it from interfering with the navigation of the stream. The High Bridge is one of the principal pleasure resorts in the suburbs of New York. The bridge itself is a noble work of art, and the surrounding scenery is exceedingly beautiful.

There are two large reservoirs at the city end of the bridge—the "Storage Reservoir" and the "High Service"—the latter of which is designed for supplying the elevated section of Washington Heights. From here to the distributing reservoirs in the Central Park the distance is two and a quarter miles. There are two of these reservoirs in the Park. The old, or lower one, is a parallelogram in form, covering an area of thirty-one acres, and with a capacity for 150,000,000 gallons of water. The

new reservoir lies to the north of the old one, and is separated from it by a sunken road which traverses the Park. It is a massive structure of granite, irregular in form, and occupying almost the entire width of the Park. It covers an area of 106 acres, and will hold 1,000,000,000 gallons of water. The two reservoirs thus cover an area of 137 acres and hold 1,150,000,000 gallons of water. They are among the finest specimens of the engineer's work in this country. The gate houses are elegant granite buildings, and are among the notable ornaments of the Park.

The distributing reservoir for the lower part of the city is on Fifth avenue between Fortieth and Forty-second streets. It is built above the level of the street, of granite, is lined with cement, covers about four acres of ground, and will hold about 20,000,000 gallons of water. It is exactly forty-one miles from the Croton lake.

The daily flow of water through the aqueduct is 60,000,000 gallons, its full capacity. The reservoirs at the High Bridge, in the Park, and at Forty-second street hold over 2,000,000,000 gallons, or about fifteen days' supply at the present rate of consumption. About 400 miles of main pipes distribute the water through the city, distributing it to over 68,000 dwelling-houses and stores, about 1700 manufactories, about 300 hospitals, prisons, schools, and other public buildings, over 300 churches, and 14 markets. There are over 100 public drinking hydrants and a number of ornamental fountains in the city. The lakes and fountains in the Central Park are all supplied with Croton water, which is also furnished to the State Prison at Sing Sing and the institutions on Blackwell's, Randall's, and Ward's islands. The Croton river is one of the purest streams in the world. The water is bright and sparkling, and there is no sediment perceptible to the naked eye. Actual analysis has shown that the amount of impurity during an entire summer was but 4.45 grains in a gallon, or 7.63 parts in 100,000 parts.

The original cost of the aqueduct and reservoirs was about \$9,000,000. Since then the increased supply, the new reservoirs, pipes, etc., have made the total amount upward of \$40,000,000. The total receipts from the water tax since the opening of the aqueduct have amounted to about \$30,000,000. The tax at present amounts to something less than \$1,500,000 annually.

THE BRONZE DOORS OF THE CAPITOL.

The main entrance from the central portico of the National Capitol at Washington is provided with doors of bronze which constitute the most superb and beautiful work of art of this character in existence. The doors were designed and modelled in Rome, in 1858, by Randolph Rogers, an American sculptor, and were cast at the Royal Foundry, at Munich, by F. Von Müller, and completed in 1861. The whole work weighs 20,000 pounds, and cost the nation \$30,000. The doors, with the frame or casing, which is also of bronze, are seventeen feet high, nine feet wide, and are folding or double. The casing is semicircular at the top, and projects about a foot in front of the leaves of the door. Around the casing extends a handsome border emblematic of conquest and navigation. The key of the arch of the casing is ornamented with a fine head of Columbus, beneath which is the American eagle with outspread wings. Four figures, representing Asia, Africa, Europe, and America, stand at the top and bottom of the casing. The upper right-hand figure represents Asia, the lower right-hand figure Europe, the upper left-hand figure Africa, and the lower left-hand figure America.

There are eight square panels in the doors besides the semicircular transom panel.

Between these panels are ten heads, five on each leaf of the door, "representing historians who have written on Columbus' voyages, from his own time down to the present day, ending with Irving and Prescott." On the right and left panels are sixteen statuettes, set in niches, representing the most eminent of the contemporaries of the great discoverer. The names of these worthies are marked on the door, and the figures can be easily recognized. Commencing with the lower right-hand figure, which is opposite the panel which begins the story told by the door, they are as follows:

Juan Perez, Prior of the Convent of La Rabida, the most faithful of all Columbus' friends, through whose efforts the Spanish queen was at last induced to grant the explorer the assistance which enabled him to undertake his first voyage.

The next above is Cortez, the conqueror of Mexico.

The third is Don Alonzo de Ojeda, a distinguished but unfaithful follower of Columbus.

The top figure is Amerigo Vespucci, whose name is borne by the continent.

At the top of the double row, between the two leaves of the door, are Pedro Gonzales de Mendoza, Archbishop of Toledo and Grand Cardinal of Spain; sometimes called, on account of his immense influence, the "third King of Spain," and Pope Alexander VI. The cardinal, who was an early patron of Columbus, stands on the right; the Pope is on the left.

The figures immediately below them are Ferdinand and Isabella, King and Queen of Spain; the queen being placed on the right.

Below these are Donna Beatriz de Bobadilla, Marchioness of Moya, one of the fast friends of Columbus, and Charles VIII., King of France. The artist was unable to find a likeness of the lady, and gave her the features of Mrs. Rogers, his wife.

Henry VII., of England, and John II., of Portugal, form the lowest pair, the English monarch being on the right. Both of these sovereigns declined to employ the great discoverer, and so lost the opportunity he offered them.

At the bottom of the left row stands Martin Alonzo Pinzon. He was the captain of the "Pinta," and one of the first to see the land of the new world. Eventually he betrayed his friend and commander, and died of grief and mortification.

Above him is Bartholomew Columbus, the brother of the great man, and appointed by him Lieutenant-Governor of the Indies. This figure wears the face of the artist, Mr. Rogers, as it was impossible to find a likeness of the subject.

Above him is Vasco Nunez de Balboa, who, crossing the Isthmus of Darien with his followers, discovered the Pacific Ocean on the 29th of September, 1510.

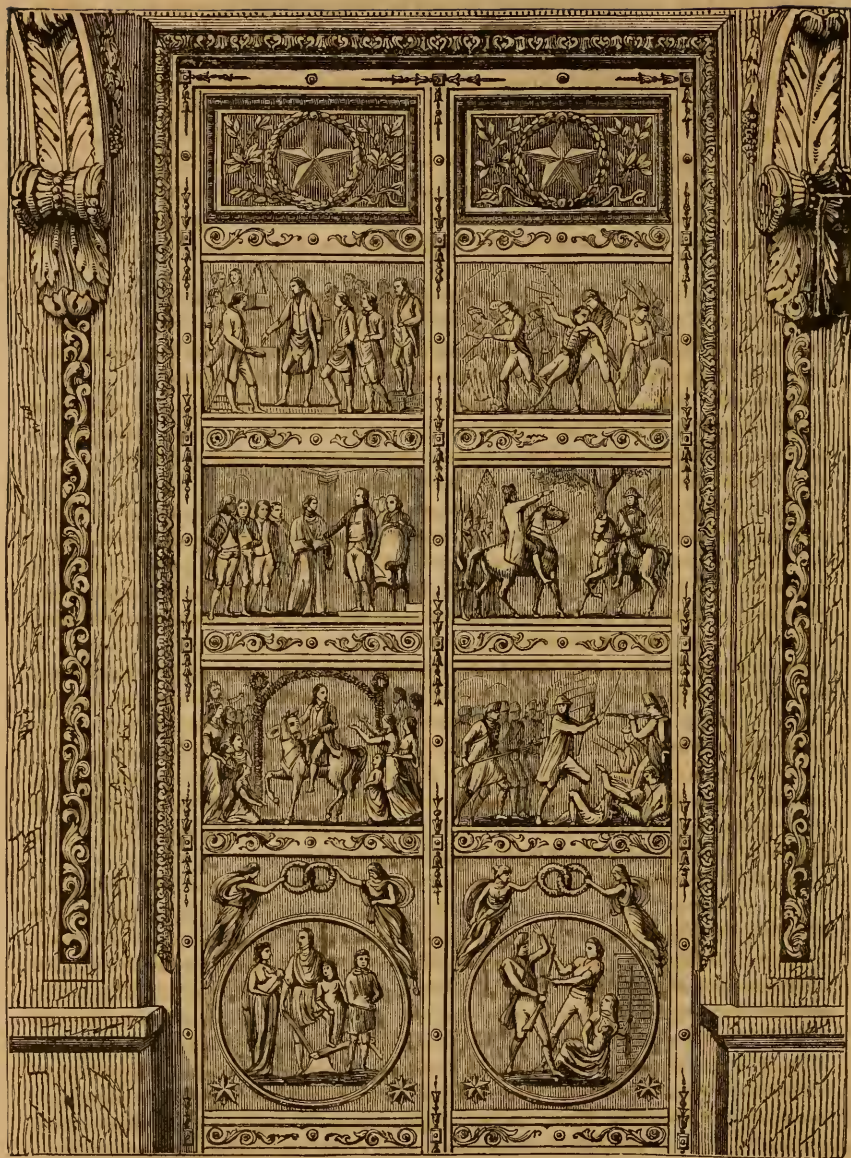
Francisco Pizarro, the cruel conqueror of Peru, fills the topmost niche, and completes the group.

We come now to the exquisite pictures embraced in the panels of the door. The work is in *alto relievo*, the figures standing out boldly from the surface. Every detail is perfect, and the gazer's emotions of admiration are strongly mingled with wonder that so elaborate a design has been so faithfully and minutely executed. An oil painting or steel engraving could not more forcibly or perfectly tell the story. The lowest right-hand panel begins the tale, the transom panel being the central scene.

Panel I. Columbus is expanding to the Council of Salamanca his theory of finding the Indies by sailing due west from Europe. This Council gravely deliberated the subject, and solemnly concluded that the project was "vain and impossible, and not becoming great princes to engage in on such slender grounds as had been adduced." The calm confidence and the eagerness of the discoverer, and the cold, half-pitying incredulity of the monks is admirably depicted in the figures of the group.



THE BRONZE DOOR IN THE NATIONAL CAPITOL, COMMEMORATING THE
EVENTS OF THE LIFE OF CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.



THE BRONZE DOOR IN THE NATIONAL CAPITOL, COMMEMORATING THE EVENTS (THE LIFE OF GEORGE WASHINGTON.

Panel II. Weary and heartsick, on foot, and leading his son Diego, a mere lad, by the hand, Columbus set out on his departure from Spain. He was without money and without friends, and was in despair of having his great scheme adopted by any of the potentates of the old world. On his journey he stopped at the Convent of La Rabida, near Palos, and was kindly received by the monks, who induced him to remain with them a long time. While there he stated his plans and hopes to the Prior, Juan Perez, who had been the Confessor of Queen Isabella. Here, also, he met Martin Alonzo Pinzon, who accompanied him in his subsequent voyage. The prior became warmly interested in the scheme, and mentioned it to Donna Beatriz de Bobadilla, an attendant and favorite of the queen. The two brought the matter to the queen's notice, and urged it upon her so warmly that her majesty sent Columbus a sum of money sufficient to enable him to appear at court and plead his cause in person. The scene depicted in the panel represents him setting off from the convent to wait upon the queen.

Panel III. Columbus having been presented at court is represented as laying his plan before the King and Queen of Spain. The queen leans forward with eagerness, but the king holds back coldly and doubtingly. The courtiers in the background regard the bold adventurer with looks of mingled scorn and incredulity.

Panel IV. This panel is at the top of the right leaf of the door, and represents "The Departure from Palos." The admiral's ships lie waiting in the harbor, while he is standing on the shore bidding farewell to his son and confiding him to the care of his friend the prior.

The Transom Panel. This panel extends over both leaves of the door, is semicircular in form, and represents the admiral and his companions landing at San Salvador, and taking formal possession of the island. The banner of Spain is borne aloft by Columbus, who grasps a sword in his right hand. Boats are coming ashore from the ships in the offing, and a group of natives crouch at the foot of a large tree, gazing at the new-comers with wonder and fear.

Panel V. is at the top of the left leaf of the door, and represents the first intercourse between the Indians and the discoverers. One of the sailors is seen approaching the admiral bearing on his shoulders an Indian girl whom he has captured and bound. Columbus sternly rebukes him for his cruelty and orders the instant release of the girl.

Panel VI. represents "The Triumphal Entry into Barcelona." Columbus having returned from the New World, bringing with him the proofs of his discoveries, is entering the city of Barcelona amid the cheers of the assembled multitude. The admiral is represented on horseback in the foreground.

Panel VII. represents the wrongs of Columbus. Don Francisco de Bobadilla, having been sent to the New World to investigate the charges brought against the admiral by his enemies, decided against him without investigation, and sent him back to Spain in chains. The panel represents the arrival of the chained admiral on board the vessel that was to convey him to Europe. The officers of the ship, filled with generous indignation at the outrage, desired to relieve him of his fetters, but he replied, "No; I will wear them as a memento of the gratitude of princes."

Panel VIII. represents the death of Columbus. Upon his return from his last voyage the admiral met with a cold welcome in Spain. The queen, his benefactress, was dead, and the selfish Ferdinand was ungrateful to the man who had given a new world to Spain, and refused to grant him the rewards that had been promised him. The admiral was without friends at court, his great fame having excited the hostile jealousy of the courtiers. Landing near San Lucas, Columbus proceeded to Seville. He was poor in purse, feeble from age, and broken down in health. He made

repeated efforts to obtain redress for the wrongs done him, but failed. Broken-hearted, he died at Valladolid on the 20th of May, 1506, being about seventy years old.

The panel represents the chamber in which he died. His friends are gathered around his bed, the last rites of the church have been administered, and a priest holds aloft a crucifix, in order that his last earthly glance may be fixed upon the symbol of his redemption. The world fast recedes from the dying eyes, the weak lips murmur, "*In Manus tuas, Domine, commendo spiritum meum.*" "Into thy Hands, O Lord, I commend my spirit," and the great, grand soul passes into a blessed eternity.

The door forms one of the richest and most beautiful ornaments of the Capitol, and is an object of pride to the whole nation. It is a grand achievement of American genius, and is worthy of the high praise it has received from lovers of art on both sides of the Atlantic.

THE WASHINGTON DOORS.

The main entrance to the Senate wing of the Capitol is adorned with a second door of bronze, commemorative of the events in the life of George Washington. It is not as elaborate as the Columbus door, but has been considered by some critics a better work of art. It was designed by Thomas Crawford, the sculptor of the magnificent group in marble which adorns the pediment of the Senate portico, and the colossal statue of Liberty which looks down from the summit of the great dome.

The door contains but six panels, illustrative of scenes in the life of the father of his country. The upper panel of each leaf of the door is occupied with a five-pointed star, enclosed in a laurel wreath.

The lowest panel on the right represents two angels holding joined wreaths of laurel. Below these figures, enclosed in a circle, is a scene representing an American defending his wife and child against a Hessian Grenadier. The wife crouches to the floor, with her babe clasped in one arm, while the other hand holds a rifle, which she has in readiness for her husband. The husband has seized the musket of the Hessian, and is in the act of discharging his pistol at his breast.

The lowest panel on the left represents Cincinnatus called from his plough to assume the command of the armies of Rome. He stands with his hand on the plough, and is surrounded by his family. The group is enclosed in a circle, over which hover two angels with suspended laurel wreaths.

The second panel from the top, on the right, represents the death of General Braddock. He is supported by Washington, and the Virginia Rangers are seen hotly engaged with the enemy.

The third panel on the right represents the meeting of Washington and General Charles Lee at the battle of Monmouth. The scene is spirited, and the overwhelming anger of Washington, and the guilty hesitation of Lee are depicted in a masterly manner.

The fourth panel on the right represents the battle of Trenton. Washington is shown leading the final charge upon the Hessian Grenadiers.

The fourth panel on the left, immediately adjoining the one just described, represents the reception of Washington at Trenton, on his journey to New York, to assume the duties of the Presidency. He is passing under a triumphal arch, amid the joyful acclamations of the citizens.

The third panel on the left represents Washington taking the oath of office as Presi-

dent of the United States. He stands with his hand resting on an open Bible, while Chancellor Livingston administers to him the oath of office.

The second, or highest of the panels on the left, represents Washington laying the corner-stone of the Capitol of the United States, at the city of Washington. The corner-stone was laid on the 18th of September, 1793, and the ceremonies were performed in accordance with the ritual of the Masonic order. Washington is represented with the Masonic apron, and the various personages attending him wear similar aprons.

The door is rectangular in shape, and is enclosed in a massive frame of bronze. It is a noble work, fully sustains the great fame of the artist, and is a worthy companion of the central door. The two form the most notable ornaments of the Capitol.



AN AMERICAN PICTURE.

At the north end of the west corridor of the House of Representatives wing of the Capitol at Washington is a splendid marble stairway leading to the second floor and the galleries of the House. The wall at the end of the stairway, from the first landing to the ceiling, is ornamented with Leutze's great painting, "Westward the Course of Empire Takes its Way." It is lighted from a skylight in the roof, and is seen to the best advantage from the upper corridor.

The picture is painted on the wall by a process known as "*Stereochrome*," or, as it is sometimes called, "*Water-glass painting*." "The wall is coated with a preparation of clean quartz sand, mixed with the least possible quantity of lime; and after the application of this, the surface is scraped to remove the outer coating in contact with the atmosphere. It is then washed with a solution of silesia, soda, potash, and water. As the painter applies his colors he moistens his work by squirting distilled water upon it. When finished it is washed over with the silesia solution. The picture, also, in its progress is washed with the same solution, and the colors thus becoming incorporated in the flinty coating, the picture is rendered hard and durable as stone itself."

The coloring of the picture is very rich, but is softer and more natural than is often seen in mural paintings. The work has been done with a master hand, and the scene is lifelike and exhilarating. However minute the details may be, each is produced with the utmost fidelity. Gaze at it for hours, and the eye will all the while discover some new beauty.

The scene represents a train of emigrants crossing the Rocky Mountains. They have reached the summit of the range, from which a glorious view stretches before them to the westward. The adventurers consist of the usual class of emigrants—men, women, and children. There are several wagons and a number of horses in the train. The faces of the emigrants express the various emotions which fill their hearts as they gaze upon the glorious scene before them. Some are full of life and vigor, and hope beams in every feature; whilst others are struggling with sickness and despair. The advance of the train has been momentarily checked by a huge tree which has fallen across the path, and two stout men, under the direction of the leader of the party, who is sitting on his horse, are engaged in hewing it away with axes. Two men have climbed to the summit of a neighboring rocky crag, on which they have planted the banner of the Republic, which is seen flapping out proudly from its lofty perch. In the foreground stands a manly youth, clasping his father's long rifle with a firm grasp, and gazing towards the promised land with a countenance glowing with hope

and energy. His sister, hopeful as himself, is seated by her mother's side on a buffalo robe which has been thrown over a rock. The mother's face is sad but patient. She knows well the privations, toil, and hardships which await them in the new home land, but she tries to share the enthusiasm and hope of her children. She clasps her nursing infant to her breast, and listens to her husband, who stands by and points her to the new country where they will build up a home of her own. Her face is very beautiful—such a face as only a true artist could depict. The rich, warm light of the rising sun streams brightly over the whole scene and gives to it a magical glow.

The legend, "Westward the Course of Empire Takes its Way," is inscribed over the painting in letters of gold.

An illuminated border, illustrative of the advance of civilization in the West, surrounds the painting. This border is in itself one of the most elaborate works of art in the Capitol.

Beneath the painting, and detached from it, the artist has given a view of "The Golden Gate," the entrance to the harbor of San Francisco.

On the right of the picture is a portrait of Daniel Boone, below which are the lines:

"The Spirit grows with its allotted spaces;
The mind is narrowed in a narrow sphere."

On the left of the painting is a portrait of Captain William Clark, and the lines:

"No pent-up Utica contracts our powers;
But the whole boundless continent is ours."

Leutze was paid by Congress the sum of \$20,000 for this magnificent work.

THE UNITED STATES OBSERVATORY.

The United States Observatory is located at Washington, and is situated upon an elevated site, southwest of the President's house. It is near the Georgetown line, and commands a fine view of the city and the Potomac river as far down as Fort Washington and Mount Vernon. It is in charge of a corps of officers of the United States Navy, being a branch of the Navy Department. The officers in charge are selected for their scientific knowledge and skill, the duties required of them being of the most difficult and intricate nature. The institution holds a high rank among the observatories of the world. It is said that it is excelled in completeness and excellence only by that of Russia. Besides discharging the usual astronomical duties of such an establishment, the officers of the Observatory are the keepers of all the nautical books, maps, charts and instruments belonging to the navy.

Principal among these are the chronometers belonging to the Government, which are kept in a room set apart for that purpose. These instruments are purchased by the Navy Department with the understanding that they are to be tested in the Observatory for one year. They are placed in the chronometer room and are carefully wound and regulated. Each day they are examined and are compared with the great Astronomical Clock of the Observatory, and an accurate record of the movements of each one is kept in a book prepared for that purpose. The temperature of the room is examined daily and recorded. These minute records enable the officers of the Observatory to point out the exact fault of each imperfect chronometer. Thanks to this system, the maker of the instrument is enabled to remedy the defect, and to render it perfect. At the end of the year the instruments found to be unsatisfactory are returned to their makers, and those which pass the test are paid for. The returned instruments are usually over-

hauled by the makers, and the defects remedied. They are then sent back for another year's trial, and rarely fail to pass the test at the end of this time. There are usually from sixty to one hundred chronometers on trial at the Observatory, and the apartment in which they are kept is one of the most interesting in the establishment.

The researches connected with the famous "Wind and Current Charts," begun and prosecuted so successfully by the late Lieutenant Matthew F. Maury, whose services were unfortunately lost to the country by his participation in the rebellion, are conducted here, as are those relating to "The Habits of the Whale," and other ocean phenomena.

The Equatorial, which is the largest telescope in the Observatory, is mounted in the revolving dome which rises above the main building. It has a fourteen feet refractor, and an object glass nine inches in diameter. Its movements are most ingenious, being regulated by machinery and clock work. Its powers are so great that it renders stars visible at midday; and, if directed to a given star in the morning, its machinery will work so accurately that it will follow with perfect exactness the path of the star, which will be visible through it as long as the star is above the horizon.

The Meridian and Mural Circles are in one of the rooms below.

The Transit instrument is placed in the west wing of the building, under a slit twenty inches wide, extending across the room and down the wall of the apartment on each side, to within four or five feet of the floor. It was made by Ertel & Son, of Munich, and is a seven foot achromatic, with a clear aperture of 5.3 inches. The mounting consists of two granite piers, seven feet high, each formed of a solid block of that stone, let down below the floor, and imbedded in a stone foundation eight feet deep, and completely isolated from the building. Midway between the piers, and running north and south, is the artificial horizon, composed of a slab of granite ten feet long, nineteen inches deep, and thirteen inches broad; it rests on the foundation, and is isolated from the floor, with the level of which the top of it is even, with a space all around it of half an inch; in the middle of this slab, and in the nadir of the telescope, there is a mortise, nine inches square and ten inches deep, in which the artificial horizon is placed to protect it from the wind during the adjustment for collimation, or the determination of the error of collimation of level, and the adjustment for stellar focus, verticality of wires, and the other uses of the collimating eye-piece.

The great Astronomical Clock, or "Electro-Chronograph," is placed in the same room with the Transit Instrument, and is used in connection with it to denote sidereal time. It was invented by Professor John Locke, of Cincinnati, and is one of the most remarkable instruments in the world. By means of an electrical battery in the building, the movements of this clock can be repeated by telegraph in any city or town in the land to which the wires extend. With the wires properly connected with it its ticks may be heard in any part of the country, and it will record the time so accurately that an astronomer in Portland or New Orleans can tell with exactness the true time of day by this clock.

The clock also regulates the time for the city. There is a flagstaff on top of the dome, upon which a large black ball is hoisted at ten minutes before noon every day. This is to warn persons desiring to know the exact time to examine their watches and clocks. Just as the hands of the great clock point the hour of twelve the ball drops, and the city is thus informed that it is high noon.

The Observatory is open to visitors every day between the hours of 9 A. M. and 3 P. M.; and an accomplished and genial officer is in readiness to explain the mysteries of the establishment.

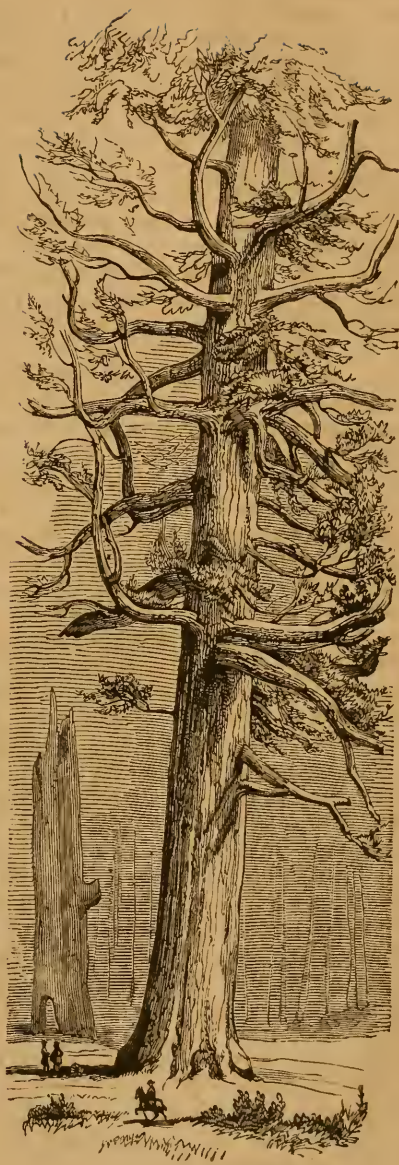
THE BIG TREES OF CALIFORNIA.

The "Big Trees" of California are among the most remarkable specimens of gigantic vegetable growth in existence. They are situated in Calaveras and Mariposa counties, on the sides of the Sierra Nevada, at a height of 4500 feet above the level of the sea. They were unknown to the whites until 1852, but are now among the best known and most constantly visited natural curiosities of the State. For fully twenty miles before reaching "The Grove," as the forest containing the "Big Trees" of Calaveras is called, the size of the timber begins to increase, and grows larger at every mile until it attains its maximum size in the "Big Trees."

"The Grove" of Calaveras county covers a space of about 50 acres, and contains about 92 of the big trees. Another grove in Mariposa county contains 134 trees over 15 feet in diameter. These giant trees stand sometimes in groups, and sometimes singly and apart. Some are low and stumpy, but others rear their heads to such a height that they appear to touch the clouds. This vast height has the effect of dwarfing the immense proportions of the trees, and it is not until one examines them more closely that their gigantic size is seen. The Calaveras Grove contains the largest specimens, and we shall confine our description to these. A comfortable hotel has been erected in the Grove for the accommodation of tourists.

Near to the hotel is one of the largest of the trees, which lies prone upon the ground. The stump has been trimmed away, and is covered over with a handsome summer-house, and fitted up as a pavillion for dancing. On a Fourth of July occasion a cotillon party of thirty-two persons danced upon the stump, and had abundant room for the musicians and a dozen spectators. The stump has a surface 25 feet in diameter. While standing, the bark, which was 18 inches thick, added 3 feet more to this, making the total diameter of the tree in a state of nature 28 feet. It was 302 feet in height, and 96 feet in circumference three feet from the ground. The tree was cut down, and five men were twenty days in felling it. The work was done with long augurs, boring it off little by little; but when entirely severed, such was the perfect plumb of trunk and branches, that, to the amazement of the spectators, the tree merely settled down, and still stood, as if refusing, conscious of its majesty, to bow to human endeavor. Vast wedges were then inserted on the northern side, and driven little by little, till, heaved beyond the line of gravity, the mighty tree came crashing to the ground. Sections of the tree and bark were sent to the Eastern States and to Europe to convince the world of the truth of the reports concerning the trees.

The largest of all the trees is called "The Father of the Forest." It lies upon the ground, and evidently fell many years before the Grove was discovered. It is 110 feet in circumference at its base, and the distance from this point to the first branch is 260 feet. The tree is hollow for this distance, and through this hollow part a tall man can easily walk erect. The tree, when standing, was at least 420 feet high, and may have been higher. The largest of the trees now standing is "The Mother of the Forest," so called from two round protuberances on one side. The bark has been removed for a height of 116 feet, but without it the tree is 84 feet in circumference at its base. Twenty feet from the base its circumference is 69 feet, from which point it decreases with elegant regularity to the height of 321 feet. It is the most regularly proportioned of all the large trees. For this reason its immense size is seldom appreciated at the first view. It is not until one has examined it closely and viewed it from different points that its grandeur is properly appreciated. The bark was from ten to twenty-four inches thick, bulging outwardly in a succession of ellipsoids around the trunk. "Ten feet from the base," says a visitor, "this tree would 'square' twenty feet, to use



"BIG TREES," MARIPOSA AND CALVERAS GROVES, CALIFORNIA.

(First tree, 350 feet high and 28 feet in diameter; Second tree 386 feet high and 31 feet in diameter.)



LAKE TAHOE, SIERRA NEVADA MOUNTAINS. (6,220 feet above the sea—21 miles long and 12 miles broad.)

a sawyer's phrase; and taking this with a length of 320 feet, gradual decline, a practical lumberman of our party estimates that it must contain at least five hundred and twenty thousand feet of sound inch lumber! This seems incredible, but the rules of mensuration show it beyond a doubt."

The "Husband and Wife" are the names given to two immense trees of younger growth, each 60 feet around the base and 250 feet in height. They grow very near and bend lovingly to each other, their upper branches meeting in a dense mass of foliage.

The "Burnt Tree" is another of the fallen monarchs of the forest. Its fall was produced by natural causes. It measures over 39 feet in diameter across the roots, and is believed to have been over 300 feet high. It is hollow, and one can ride into it on horseback for a distance of 60 feet. Another tree, known as "The Horseback Ride," is hollow its entire length. The narrowest part of the interior is twelve feet wide. One of the stumps is hollow, and will comfortably seat twenty-five persons. It is called "Uncle Tom's Cabin." Three magnificent trees, known as the "Three Sisters," stand side by side in graceful amplitude, each 20 feet thick and 200 feet high, of exact proportions and equidistant from base to crown.

The trees are mammoth redwoods, and are placed by botanists among the class known as *Sequoia gigantea*. They belong to the *Taxodium* genus, and, like all of this race, are but little subject to decay. The fallen trunks, which are believed to have lain prostrate for many hundred years, fully prove this. The great height at which they stand above the sea level, the dry, balmy air, and the summer droughts and winter snows, with but light rains in the spring and autumn, expose them to but a slight risk of decay, and exempt them from the causes of death to which the timber of the lowlands is exposed.

The age of the trees is very great, and sets our mere human periods at naught. It requires twenty years for the trees of this genus to increase one inch in diameter, and forty years for the bark to gain the thickness of a knife blade. By these evidences, and those afforded by the number of annular rings, it is made clear that the largest of these standing trees must be at least three thousand years old. The fallen ones are probably a thousand years older.

"When our forefathers landed on Plymouth Rock the largest of these had long attained its growth, and was hardening into solid maturity. For how many centuries did the Indian contend with the grizzly bear and mountain lion through these shades, before the pale-face came to gaze with the enlightened wonder of a superior race? Could these whispering boughs but drop intelligible words, what of primeval history might they not tell—of combats of savage beasts, or equally savage men? When Magna Charta was signed, these giants were already of size sufficient to have astonished all the barons at Runnymede, familiar as they doubtless were with the great oaks of Boscobel and Epping Forest. When Rome yielded to the Goth, the 'Father of the Forest,' grown old and decrepit, was tottering to his fall. When Rome was founded, the 'Burnt Tree' was still a vigorous sapling, rearing his head two hundred feet upon a body of ten feet diameter, and when the Saviour bowed his head on Calvary, we may well believe that here a mighty forest groaned and shuddered in the throes of universal nature. Nay, when Solomon sent to Lebanon for cedars, and Hiram rafted him curious woods from Tyre, had navigation so far extended he might here have found solid redwoods of size sufficient for the heaviest beams of the House of God. When Homer sung of Troy, this Grove was already a wonder; and when Horace delighted himself in the Sabine woods, here were trunks to put to shame the largest oaks of the Apennines."

THE HOOSAC TUNNEL.

The great Hoosac Tunnel, which, after so many years of labor, was completed in 1874, is one of the noblest monuments of engineering skill and work in the world.

For half a century the four great Atlantic cities of Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore have been engaged in a vigorous rivalry to secure the trade of the great West. The rivalry between New York and Boston has been the most marked and zealously prosecuted. The effort of the former city to reach the West was comparatively easy, as its natural route lay along the valley of the Hudson, but from the first the question how Boston should reach the upper Hudson on an equality with New York has constituted one of the most difficult problems that has been offered to the fertile genius of New England for solution.

Right across the western part of the State of Massachusetts stretches the Hoosac Mountain, a spur of the Green Mountain range, forming a natural barrier between New England and New York, cutting off the former from the direct route to the West, and forcing it to seek an outlet by the valley of the Hudson. The problem for New England has been how to overcome this barrier to her communication with the West. There seemed but one way to accomplish this, and that was to tunnel the mountain. In 1825 it was proposed to tunnel it for the passage of a canal from Boston to the Hudson river, and the project was discussed for many years without any conclusion being reached. In the meantime the Boston & Albany Railway was constructed over the mountain in 1841, and the tunnel project was abandoned. The new railway thus enjoyed a monopoly of the trade between New England and the West, and in the natural order of things, the necessity for a competing line was soon felt.

In 1845 the Fitchburg Railway, from Boston to the northern part of the State of Massachusetts, was built to Fitchburg, and soon afterwards the Vermont & Massachusetts Railway, a continuation of the Fitchburg line, was built to Greenfield. In 1848 the Troy & Greenfield Railway was chartered, with authority to build a road from the terminus of the Vermont & Massachusetts Railroad at Greenfield, through the valleys of the Deerfield and Hoosac rivers, to the State line, where it should unite with a railway leading to Troy. This charter revived the project of tunnelling the Hoosac Mountain, the tunnel to be for the railway this time, and not as formerly for a canal.

It was found that the only part of the mountain that could be tunnelled was in the northern part of the State, near the town of Adams. The top of the mountain at the point selected for the tunnel is 2500 feet above tidewater. The mountain is approached on the east by the deep and well-marked valley of the Deerfield, a tributary of the Connecticut river, and on the west by the Hoosac, a tributary of the Hudson. The mountain consists mainly of a mass of mica slate, with occasional veins of quartz, except on the western side, where a secondary formation overlaps the primary. The rock in some places is scarcely to be distinguished from granite, and is much harder. Except where the quartz seams occur the work of drilling the rock is comparatively easy, but it is difficult to remove by blasting. The project of tunnelling the mountain having been thus revived, it was the general desire that it should be pushed through to completion, without delay. The act of incorporation of the Troy & Greenfield road required the road to be built within seven years; and in 1854 the Legislature authorized the loan of the credit of the State to the Troy & Greenfield Company to the amount of \$2,000,000 for the purpose of constructing the tunnel through the Hoosac Mountain. In 1855 authority was given by the Legislature to certain towns on the line of the road to take stock in the tunnel to a certain fixed amount. In spite of the

great desire for the tunnel, and the belief that it could be built, capital held aloof from it, and the early years of the enterprise were full of difficulties and failures. In 1855 a contract was made with W. E. Serrel & Co. of Philadelphia, to build the tunnel and road for \$3,500,000, the contractors to take \$440,000 of the stock of the company. This agreement resulted in failure, and a second contract was made with the same parties in January, 1856. The State was asked to subscribe \$150,000 to the stock, but refused, and the company was not able to raise the necessary funds, so the Serrel contract was abandoned.

In July, 1856, the company entered into a contract with Herman Haupt & Co., by which the latter agreed to build the road and tunnel for \$3,880,000. The company was again unable to raise the necessary sum, and this contract failed. The difficulty of attracting capital was so great that in 1857 the Legislature modified in a very great degree the conditions of the assistance of the State, but the bill for this purpose was vetoed by the Governor.

By this time—the latter part of the spring of 1857—the tunnel had been pierced for a distance of 621 feet from the western end, of which 274 feet had been excavated full size; and 185 feet from the eastern end; making the whole distance pierced 806 feet.

In February, 1858, a new contract was made with Haupt & Co. to finish the tunnel for \$4,000,000, and it was stipulated that the \$2,000,000 of bonds to be issued by the State should be used exclusively for the work on the tunnel. The work was now resumed with vigor, and by September, 1858, the mountain had been pierced for a distance of 1291 feet. Shortly after this the company obtained a modification of the Loan Act, and the work was prosecuted up to July, 1861. By this time the advances of the State amounted to \$778,695. About the same time the State Engineer refused to approve the work of the contractors, or to certify their bills. Operations were at once suspended in consequence of this refusal, and the enterprise was abandoned by the Troy & Greenfield Company.

The project had taken too deep a hold upon the people of the State to be allowed to fail at this stage, and in 1862 the State assumed the entire control of the enterprise, and resolved to complete it at its own expense. Three Commissioners were therefore appointed, and were placed in charge of the affairs of the tunnel.

Up to this time a great deal of work had been done on the tunnel at both approaches to the mountain. The east end heading had been driven nearly 2400 feet, 2130 being of the full size prescribed by the State; a shaft, located 3000 feet from the west end, had been sunk 325 feet to grade, while the west end had been excavated 610 feet. Serious defects were found to exist in the tunnel as constructed. It had been planned to be only fourteen feet wide, with a total height of eighteen feet, while the western shaft was found to be ten feet north of a straight line between the two portals.

The Commissioners recommended that the work should be done over upon an entirely different plan; that the tunnel should be twenty-two feet wide at the grade line, twenty-four feet at the widest point, twenty-one feet high above the track, with a circular roof. They estimated the cost of completing the tunnel, including interest and the advances already made by the State, at \$5,719,930. A bill was passed by the Legislature appropriating \$3,800,000 to the work.

In October, 1863, over two years after the abandonment of the enterprise by Haupt & Co., work was resumed on the tunnel under the direction of the State Commissioners. An entirely new line was now established, following the axis between the centre of the western shaft and the centre of the work at the east end, bringing the line out eighteen feet north of the old western portal. At the east end the old bore was used and

enlarged, but at the west end an entirely new bore was begun. It was resolved to sink but a single shaft—a central one—and the position of this was selected. Work was begun on it in December, 1863. The work was prosecuted under the direction of the Commissioners until 1868, when the State, after much public discussion, determined to have the tunnel completed on contract. At this period the eastern heading had been driven 5232 feet, and 4056 feet in various stages of advancement had been cut from the western end eastward. The central shaft had been sunk 583 feet. There remained 15,693 feet of tunnel and 457 feet of the central shaft to be excavated.

In December, 1868, the contract was awarded to Walter and Francis Shanly, of Canada, for \$4,623,069, and it was stipulated that the work should be completed by March, 1874. The tunnel was to be 24 feet wide and 24 feet high in the clear; while where arching was required it was to be 26 feet wide in the clear and $21\frac{1}{2}$ feet high above the rails. Under this contract the work was pushed forward with vigor and success by day and night. On November 27th, 1873—Thanksgiving Day—the workmen advancing from both ends met, and light was admitted through the entire tunnel. The work was completed in 1874, within a short period of the stipulated time, and was turned over to the State by the contractors.

The whole tunnel is 25,031 feet, or four and three-quarter miles long. It is 26 feet wide, with a varying height of from 23 to 26 feet wherever brick arch is used. Where the excavation is through solid rock the section is reduced to 24 feet wide by 20 feet high. The tunnel has a capacity for a double track. The open space cut of the new tunnel at the west end extends into a portion of the old Haupt tunnel, which strikes it diagonally. It is probable that the old tunnel will be used as a culvert to carry off the water from the west end.

The grade of the tunnel is 26 feet to the mile for nearly the whole distance, rising from each portal towards the central shaft, and leaving a short length of level immediately under the shaft. The height of the interior summit over the portals will be something over 60 feet. The dip in the grade each way from the centre was made to secure good drainage.

The grade in the tunnel necessitated some very difficult work in carrying the elevations. The main difficulty of the engineers was to establish the three tunnel points of the east and west ends and the foot of the central shaft in proper relations to each other. To accomplish this the engineers carefully went over the mountain with their levelling instruments, and determined the relative positions of the portals and the depth of the shaft which should be sunk to reach the proper grade at its bottom in the tunnel.

The tunnel has two shafts. One of these is near the western end and is but 318 feet deep. The other, the central shaft, is nearly in the middle of the tunnel. It is elliptical in shape, 27 feet long by 15 feet wide, and is sunk to a depth of 1028 feet. The western shaft is to be closed up, if it has not already been, in order to increase the draught of the central shaft.

The central shaft was sunk for two purposes: first to secure two facings, one to the east and the other to the west, from which the work on the tunnel could be driven to meet the work advancing from the eastern and western ends, and thus greatly expedited; and secondly to afford proper ventilation to the tunnel. It is a matter of great doubt whether the tunnel, constructed, as it is, with a grade from each end, would ventilate itself at all. Since the shaft was completed and connection made with the east end, a strong draft is obtained from it, and the tunnel is thus readily cleared of smoke and gases.

The rails have been laid through the tunnel, and it is now in working order and affords direct and uninterrupted communication with the West.

The total cost of the work, including all the failures, up to January, 1875, has been \$12,973,822. The State of Massachusetts retains its ownership of the tunnel, and will prevent it from being used for the benefit of any railway monopoly and the injury of the people.

The Hoosac Tunnel, as has been said, is one of the noblest public works in existence. It is surpassed only by the Mt. Cenis Tunnel through the Swiss Alps. The latter work was opened on the 17th of September, 1871, and is seven and four-fifths miles long. It was completed after fourteen years' labor, at a cost of about \$13,000,000.



THE VALLEY OF YOSEMITE.

The Valley of Yosemite lies in Mariposa county, California. It is a gigantic cleft in the Sierra Nevada, between five and six miles long and nearly two miles wide, and is bounded on all sides by walls of yellowish granite from 2000 to 4000 feet in height. It is the most sublime valley in the world, and its beauties yearly attract an increasing number of visitors. It lies so high up on the side of the Sierras, and is so difficult of access, that it is cut off almost entirely from the world around it, and constitutes a world of its own.

The visitor is transported from the last station of the stage in a stout mountain wagon to a point within five miles of the valley. From this point to the bed of the valley, nearly 3000 feet below, the descent must be made on horseback or on foot. It is so precipitous and formidable looking that many persons, despite the assurances of the guide, prefer to make the descent on foot. Several comfortable hotels have been established in the valley for the entertainment of visitors, and are so located that all the prominent points of interest can be easily reached from them.

The valley is watered by the main fork of the Merced river, which pours down into it over lofty crags from its source, 8000 feet higher up on the Sierras. The sides of the valley rise up almost perpendicular to the height of 3000 feet, and are impassable save at a few points. The Merced, as it enters, forms one of these places, and the rocky outlet of this stream constitutes another. The walls of the valley bear upon their sides the record of the geological changes to which they have been subjected, and tell of the ancient glaciers and waves that have worn smooth their rocky faces. The bed of the valley is thickly strewn with huge boulders, and the central part is filled with a forest of pines and firs.

Above the cliffs which shut in the valley a number of noble and majestic peaks rise to a still greater height, varying from 2000 to 4000 feet, and add inexpressibly to the grandeur of the scene. From one of these, called "Cloud's Rest," a grand view of the entire valley and the surrounding peaks is obtained. Almost every object of interest is in sight. To the left is the South or Half Dome. Above it, on the same side, is Sentinel Rock, sloping down to Glacier Point. Farther away are the Cathedral Rocks and Spires, and beyond them the valley runs off into the mountain side. On the right, at the upper end, nearly opposite Cathedral Rocks, rises the bold head of El Capitan; lower down is the majestic North Dome sweeping down to Washington Column, and separated from the Half Dome by Tenaya Cañon. Back of the North Dome lies the Yosemite Fall, while to the left and back of the Half Dome are the Gorge of the Merced and Nevada and Vernal Falls. The distant spires of the Cathedral Rocks hide the beautiful Bridal Veil Fall.

"To the north," says a writer describing the scene from Cloud's Rest, "over intervening cañons and gorges, the Sierra peaks rose grandly desolate, pale and delicately tinted with many tones, warm and cool, against the cloudless vacuum of the sky beyond, that by contrast wore a strangely sombre hue. Their shoulders were robed with snow and ice, and their flanks were grooved and scarred by glaciers long since extinct. Upon the lower levels a sparse growth of evergreens hardly served to cover the naked appearance of the landscape, and bald spots showed almost as white as the snow beyond. This peculiar appearance of sterility, and meagre, patchy forest growth, characterizes all the surrounding country when seen from such a height. Turning from the Sierras, that were from 3000 to 5000 feet above our level, we looked down 6000 feet into the Yosemite, whose peculiar trough-like formation was readily recognizable, running almost at right angles to the regular trend of the mountains, and fully 4000 feet below the average level of the surrounding country. The familiar forms of the enclosing walls, and the green groves and meadows of the valley floor upon which the Merced sparkled, could be plainly seen, but angles of rock hid each waterfall."

A pleasant excursion is made from the original hotel, across the Merced—a fine mountain stream ten feet deep and abounding in trout—to the head or eastern end of the valley. On the left as the visitor ascends the valley are the "Royal Arches," on the north side. The granite has fallen in some previous convulsion in such shape as to form five gigantic arches, one within the other, half a mile in length, and rising in the centre 1500 feet.

In the upper part of the valley lies Mirror Lake, a pretty mountain tarn of clear water, in which, when the day is clear, the whole valley and the surrounding peaks are reflected as in a mirror. When the sky is cloudless and the sunlight unobstructed, the picture reflected in the lake is dazzlingly brilliant.

Continuing up the valley one may visit the Cathedral Rocks, two sharp, lofty pinnacles, rising like the spires of a Gothic cathedral for a height of 2000 feet. At their feet the river crowds so close that the trail is forced to find its way through a wilderness of great granite blocks that lie embowered in a forest that has grown up since they were hurled from their places on the cliffs above. Beyond these is the exquisite Bridal Veil Fall, which leaps from a rocky height of 900 feet. Its upper part sparkles a moment in the sunlight, a solid body; then sweeps down in a wild whirl of spray which breaks into a thousand lighter showers before it reaches the basin below.

There are several other falls by which the Merced flows into the valley. The river enters it in two branches, which unite in the valley. The smaller branch comes in from the northeast, under the shadow of the North Dome and the Cap of Liberty—the last a wondrous cone rising directly from the north cliff—1000 feet of beautiful yellow and smooth rock, completely inaccessible. The main branch enters behind the South or Half Dome, in two magnificent cataracts called Nevada and Vernal Falls, and a series of beautiful rapids and cascades between them.

A hard climb of over two hours brings the traveller to the foot of the Nevada Falls, 2000 feet above the level of the valley. This is the most superb fall in the Yosemite. The Merced comes rushing down the mountain side in a deep trough from its source among the ice peaks, hurrying on in a clear crystal stream, and leaps at a single bound 400 feet, and then rushes down into the valley below in a series of rapids broken by the rocks, scattering itself at times in clouds of thin spray, and then re-collecting its waters again and pouring them over the rocks in a single stream.

The Vernal Fall is so called because of the exquisite emerald tints it displays. It

was called by the Indians the "Cataract of Diamonds." It is accessible from more points than any other fall in the valley, but can be reached only on foot. It consists of one clear fall of 350 feet. The water starts from the cliff in two great rocky flumes, twenty feet wide and perhaps a foot in depth, but long before reaching the bottom is utterly broken into the minutest fragments and rolled into one great airy sheet of foam, snow-white and dazzling, bordered apparently by pearl dust, it seems a column of cloud breaking upon the rocks to light surf and stony crystals. A series of stairways has been constructed to enable visitors to reach the various points from which the fall may be viewed to advantage.

The cliffs are so gigantic and majestic that it is impossible to repress a feeling of awe while standing in the valley and gazing up to them. The huge peaks or "domes" which rise still higher are inexpressibly beautiful. The coloring of the whole scene is brilliant and striking, varying from the richest hues to the softest tints. A solemn silence broods over the whole valley, save where it is broken by the sighing of the wind or the noise of the waterfalls.

On the north side of the valley the Yosemite Creek flows into it by the beautiful Yosemite Falls. The immense wall of the northern cliff gives back, leaving an inlet into the mountain, the sides of which, like buttresses, approach each other at a sharp angle, and down one side of this inlet pours Yosemite, in summer a mere rill, but in the rainy season a fierce, swollen mountain torrent. Then great liquid volumes fall from the first height 1600 feet, strike and break to a thousand splintered streams, lacing all the second fall for 400 feet with dazzling lines of foam; then gather in another flume, take another plunge, and rebounding from cliff to cliff in a million comminuted streams, roar into the basin below. Large logs from the mountain forests plunge a thousand feet without check and splinter to fragments, but sometimes pass entire, and with myriad tumbings are drifted far down the plain. The three divisions of the fall measure respectively 1600, 434, and 633 feet, making a total fall of 2667 feet.

The name of the valley is an Anglicized or corrupted form of the Indian A-hom-e-tæ, which means Great Grizzly Bear, supposed to be the title of a chief, and applied generally to a tribe that held possession of the region from the valley to the plains on the west. That name, however, was never given to it by the Indians. They called it A-wah-nee, which finds its equivalent in the Spanish cañon or the English chasm. The valley was discovered in 1851. The miners and early settlers on the Mariposa estate were greatly annoyed by the depredations of the thieving Indians. A military company was organized to punish the savages, and guided by Tenaya, a friendly Indian, this force pursued the astonished redskins into their innermost hiding-place, the now famous Yosemite Valley, which the savages had supposed was inaccessible to the whites. The pursuers were astounded at the magnificence of the scenery, and their accounts of it upon their return were set down by their comrades as pure exaggeration. Other visitors confirmed the first reports, and the region soon attained the celebrity it has since possessed. The valley is now under the control of a Commission appointed by the State of California. The Commissioners appoint a guardian of the valley, who resides on the spot, and whose duty it is to see that the rules for the preservation of the trees and the prevention of wanton defacement are properly carried out. New roads are being opened into the valley, and the number of visitors is annually increasing.

It would be impossible to present to the reader a full description of this wonderful valley in an article as brief as this. We have tried to draw the attention to the most prominent characteristics and most interesting objects, and have been obliged to omit

a minute description of the wonderful domes and a score of other objects of beauty and grandeur. Indeed, no words can adequately describe such a scene. Even the pencil of the greatest artist fails to do it justice. Nature has made this wonderful valley her master-work, and it must be seen to be appreciated.

THE SIGNAL SERVICE.

One of the best arranged, though one of the most recent, branches of the general Government is that section of the War Department known as the Signal Bureau. The chief of this bureau has been humorously termed "Old Probabilities," in consequence of his daily prognostications of the state of the weather for the next twenty-four hours. "Old Probabilities" is at present Brigadier-General Albert J. Meyer, one of the most thoroughly competent and accomplished officers on duty at Washington. The operations of the bureau are conducted under his immediate and constant supervision. He is assisted by a corps of trained and well-qualified subordinates, and has brought the Signal Service to a state of efficiency and usefulness of which the whole country is proud.

The Signal Service is charged with a double duty. In time of war its members accompany the army, and transmit messages from point to point by means of a system of flag telegraphing. In peace their duties consist in observing and transmitting to Washington accurate reports of the condition of the weather. The Signal Corps is composed of a commanding officer, with the rank of Brigadier-General, several commissioned officers, and a certain number of sergeants and enlisted men. The sergeants are required to be proficient in spelling, the ground rules of arithmetic, including decimal fractions, and the geography of the United States, and must write a legible hand. They must pass an examination in these branches before being admitted into the service. They are also subjected to a searching medical examination, and only men of sound physical condition are accepted. They are regularly enlisted into the military service of the United States, and are subject to the regulations for the government of the army.

Immediately upon admission into the corps each sergeant is sent to Fort Whipple, in Virginia, opposite Washington, where he is taught the duties of his profession, which are "chiefly those pertaining to the observation, record, and proper publication and report, at such times as may be required, of the state of the barometer, thermometer, hygrometer, and rain-gauge, or other instruments, and the report by telegraph or signal at such times as indicated, and to such places as may be designated by the chief signal officer, of the observations as made, or such other information as may be required." The text-books used in the school at Fort Whipple are Loomis's "Text-Book of Meteorology," Buchan's "Hand-Book of Meteorology," Pope's "Practical Telegraphy," and the "Manual of Signals for the United States Army." Instruction in the use of the instruments is also given, and the sergeant is taught to operate the telegraph. He is required to make daily recitations, and when he is considered prepared by his instructor, he is ordered before an examining board, and is subjected to a rigid examination. If he is found properly qualified, he is assigned to a signal station in some part of the country, and is allowed an enlisted man to assist him in his duties.

There are about fifty signal stations located in various parts of the Union, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from British America to the Gulf of Mexico. Each of these is supplied with a full set of the instruments necessary for ascertaining the con-

dition of the weather, etc., and is in charge of an observer sergeant, who is required to make observations three times a day by means of his instruments, which are adjusted to a standard at Washington. These observations are made at 8 A. M., at 4 P. M., and at midnight. Each post of observation is provided with a clock which is regulated by the standard of Washington time, so that the observations are taken precisely at the same moment all over the United States. The result of each observation is immediately telegraphed to the Signal Office at Washington, the Government having made arrangements with the telegraph companies to secure the instant transmission of these messages. The reports are limited to a fixed number of words, and the time of their transmission to a fixed number of seconds. The signal stations, as at present located throughout the country, "have been chosen or located at points from which reports of observations will be most useful as indicating the general barometric pressure, or the approach and force of storms, and from which storm warnings, as the atmospheric indications arise, may be forwarded with greatest despatch to imperilled ports."

The work of the observers at the stations is simple. It is limited to a reading of their instruments at stated times, the transmission to Washington of the results of these observations, and of information of any meteorological facts existing at the station when their tri-daily report is telegraphed to Washington. The work of the officers on duty at the Signal Office in Washington is of a higher character, and demands great skill and perfect accuracy. The reports from the various stations are read and recorded as they come in, and from them the officer charged with this duty prepares a statement of the condition of the weather during the past twenty-four hours, and indicates the changes most likely to occur within the next twenty-four hours. These statements are prepared shortly after midnight, and are at once telegraphed to the various cities and important ports of the Union in time for their publication in the newspapers the next morning.

Professor Maury, of the Signal Office, thus sums up the workings of the service: "Each observer*at the stations writes his report on manifold paper. One copy he preserves, another he gives to the telegraph operator, who telegraphs the contents to Washington. The preserved copy is a voucher for the report actually sent by the observer; and if the operator is careless and makes a mistake, he cannot lay the blame on the observer, who has a copy of his report, which must be a fac simile of the one he has handed to the operator. The preserved copy is afterwards forwarded by the observer sergeant to the office in Washington, where it is filed, and finally bound up in a volume for future reference.

"When all the reports from the various stations have been received they are tabulated and handed to the officer whose duty it is to write out the synopses and deduce the 'probabilities,' which in a few minutes are to be telegraphed to the press all over the country. This is a work of thirty minutes. The bulletin of 'probabilities,' which at present is all that is undertaken, is made out thrice daily—in the forenoon, afternoon, and after the midnight reports have been received, inspected, and studied out by the accomplished gentleman and able meteorologist who is at the head of this work. The 'probabilities' of the weather for the ensuing day, so soon as written out by the professor, are immediately telegraphed to all the newspapers in the country.

"Copies of the telegrams of 'probabilities' are also instantly sent to all boards of trade, chambers of commerce, merchants' exchanges, scientific societies, etc., and to conspicuous places, especially seaports, all over the country.

"While the professor is preparing his bulletins from the reports just furnished him by telegraph, the sergeants are preparing maps which shall show by arrows and numbers exactly what was the meteorological condition of the whole country when the

last reports were sent in. These maps are printed in quantities and given all the signal stations. A dozen copies are laid on the table with sheets of carbon paper between them, and arrow stamps strike in them by the manifold process the direction of the wind at each station. The other observations, as to temperature, barometric pressure, etc., etc., are also in the same way put on them. These maps are displayed at various conspicuous points in Washington—*e. g.*, at the War Department, Capitol Observatory, Smithsonian Institution, and the office of the chief signal officer. They serve also as perfect records of the weather for the day and hour indicated on them, and are bound up in a book for future use.

"Every report and paper that reaches the Signal Office is carefully preserved on file, so that at the end of each year the office possesses a complete history of the meteorology of every day in the year, or nearly 50,000 observations, besides the countless and continuous records from all of its self-registering instruments.

"When important storms are moving, observers send extra telegrams, which are despatched, received, acted upon, filed, etc., precisely as are the tri-daily reports. One invaluable feature of the system as now organized by General Meyer is that the phenomena of any particular storm are not studied some days or weeks after the occurrence, but while the subject is fresh in mind. To the study of every such storm, and of all the 'probabilities' issued from the office, the chief signal officer gives his personal and unremitting attention. As the observations are made at so many different stations, and forwarded every eight hours, or oftener, by special telegram from all quarters of the country, the movements and behavior of every decided storm can be precisely noted, and the terrible meteor can be tracked and 'raced down' in a few hours or minutes. A beautiful instance of this occurred on the 22d of February, 1871, just after the great storm which had fallen upon San Francisco. While it was still revolving around that city, its probable arrival at Corinne, Utah, was telegraphed there, and also at Cheyenne. Thousands of miles from its roar, the officers at the Signal Office in Washington indicated its track, velocity, and force. In twenty-four hours, as they had forewarned Cheyenne and Omaha, it reached those cities. Chicago was warned twenty hours or more before it came. Its arrival there was with great violence, unroofing houses and causing much destruction. Its course was telegraphed to Cleveland and Buffalo, which a day afterward it duly visited. The President of the Pacific Railroad has not more perfectly under his eye the train that left San Francisco to-day than General Meyer had the storm just described."

At present the Signal Office aims only to give a synopsis of each day's weather, and a statement of what weather may be expected, or *will probably occur*. The "probabilities" so far have been generally verified and confirmed. It is not thought wise to undertake more than can be securely accomplished. These synopses and "probabilities" are all that intelligent shippers and careful seamen require. Shippers will not send their vessels to sea if the weather synopsis indicates threatening or alarming weather. Travellers can consult the "probabilities" before leaving home, and any severe storm that menaces any city or port is now specially telegraphed thither, and the announcement made by bulletins posted in the most public places.

THE MOQUI TOWNS.

In the northern part of Arizona Territory there are a number of singular towns or villages of an Indian tribe known as the Moquis. The people of the tribe are supposed to be the last surviving remnant of the ancient Aztecs. They are simple in their

habits, correct in their morals, except that polygamy is lawful among them, and are noted for their honesty.

Their towns are located on the summits of the lofty cliffs which rise up perpendicularly from the beds of the cañons of the region a thousand feet or more. A narrow footpath, winding in and out upon the crevices and projecting shelves of rock, leads up to the settlement, and could be defended by a handful against an army. The Moquis are peaceable, however, and are rarely molested by the roving tribes. There are seven Moqui towns in all. Three of these stand upon an extensive plateau which is in itself one of the most remarkable features of the country. "It appears to be walled in by precipitous mountains, with five or six openings; but this is only in appearance, as a succession of ridged *mesas*, scattered over the country, appear to the traveller at any one point as forming a circle. Around the border, where it rises towards the enclosing hills, the plain is rich in bunch and white seed grass; whence towards the towns it falls off to a horribly barren plain of dry and burning sand. From this plain the *mesa* rises, oval shaped and equally on every side, to the height of 1000 or 1200 feet. This rocky mole of mingled white and red sandstone, with a lower stratum of soapstone, is nearly half a mile long and not quite a quarter wide. From the edge the cliff falls off perpendicularly, or even with a slight overhang, some half way down; then the foothills begin and slope away in a succession of sandy inclines. At one place only, by rock-hewn galleries and dug and walled ways, can horses reach the summit. In two other places persons can descend or ascend by toilsome climbing. . . . The three or four springs that supply the place break out from under the rock about the point where the abrupt cliff joins the foothills, and can all be fortified against the approach of an enemy from below. All the provision is stored as fast as gathered, in the houses, and thus they seem always ready to sustain a long siege. As far as possible up the cliffs, where caves open inward, flats have been worked upon the rock, and sheep and goat-pens constructed leading into the caves." The three towns on this plateau contain about 1000 inhabitants.

The houses of these towns are generally square in shape and are simple in design. They are constructed of flat stones laid in a fine cement which hardens with time. The joists are composed of immense timbers hewn round. The houses are heavily plastered inside, and are whitewashed with a material which gives a hard, smooth polish. They are easily kept clean, and their occupants take a pride in keeping them as neat as possible. The houses are built together in groups, with but narrow passages between them. Thus a well-filled town will only cover four or five acres. The houses are two or three stories in height, each story, except the lowest, being very high.

The lowest story is rarely more than four or five feet high, and is never occupied in the summer time. On this the second story—which is two or three feet narrower all around than the first—is built. It is usually ten or twelve feet high. Upon the joists of the second story a floor is made by piling willows or long branches two or three feet deep and covering them with dirt. This is overlaid with hard plastering, smoothed and polished. This is used as a ceiling for the second story and a floor for the third. The third story is never more than half or a third as large as the second, and the walls of this rest not upon those of the story below, but upon the immense joists of the second story. At the outer corner of the house the stones project so as to form a rude stairway from the base to the roof. Almost every house has a ladder resting against it by which the roof may be reached.

The people sleep on the roofs of their houses altogether, and draw up the ladders after them at night. The well-to-do Moquis carpet their houses with sheep skins, and all use sheep skins to sit on, although the floors are kept scrupulously clean.

The dress of the Moqui consists of a very loose jacket and drawers made of calico, which they obtain from the traders. The jacket fits close to the neck and flows loosely to the hips; the drawers reach from the waist a little below the knees. The feet are protected by heavy sandals. The men frequently appear naked with the exception of a cloth worn about the loins. The women wear a dress of a heavy woollen fabric of their own manufacture, consisting of a single skirt and a sort of half waist, or rather a fold thrown over the shoulders, and leaving one arm and breast bare.

The Moquis are short and stumpy—the women especially so. They are not a prolific race, and are rapidly dying out. They are civil and peaceable, and have a horror of shedding blood. Their oldest men do not remember any time when they were at war. They have a hard struggle for existence, and in spite of their being more civilized than the tribes by which they are surrounded, can scarcely derive a living from their dry and barren country.

They are interesting chiefly as forming a link between the past and present native races of America. Scientists are perplexed as to their exact status, and of their history they know nothing themselves. They have no traditions concerning their ancestors; and are said by some travellers to have no religion, though others state that they have a very clearly defined religious faith.

One of their customs is very singular, and would seem to have a religious significance. About bedtime the chief of the tribe goes to the top of his house and utters a loud chant for about five minutes, after which the whole village is still. At the break of day a man with a number of bells attached to his belt runs through the village and rouses the inhabitants, who at once turn out. Those whose duty it is proceed to milk their goats, while the bellman and a number of the young men descend to the plain and go a mile or more towards the east. It is said in explanation of this that they look for a deliverer from the east, and send an embassy every morning to meet him.

THE YELLOWSTONE NATIONAL PARK.

The Yellowstone River is one of the principal tributaries of the Missouri, and rises in Yellowstone Lake, in the northwestern corner of Wyoming Territory. The region in which it takes its source is about half way between the Mississippi River and the Pacific Ocean, and in about the same latitude as the State of New York. Here the grand Rocky Mountain system culminates in a knot of peaks and ranges which enclose the most remarkable lake basin in the world. On the south of this wonderful basin are the Wind River Mountains, a snow-clad barrier which no white man has ever crossed. On the east is the Snowy Mountain Range and the grand cluster of volcanic peaks between it and Yellowstone Lake. On the west is the main divide of the Rocky Mountains. On the north are the bold peaks of the Gallatin Range, and the parallel ridges which give a northward direction to all the great tributaries of the Missouri from this direction.

The present formation of this region has been so plainly caused by volcanic action that it has been looked upon as the remains of a mammoth crater forty miles across. It seems, however, to have been rather the focus of a multitude of craters. "It is probable," says Professor Hayden, "that during the pliocene period the entire country drained by the sources of the Yellowstone and the Columbia was the scene of volcanic activity as great as that of any other portion of the globe. It might be called one vast crater, made up of a thousand smaller volcanic vents and fissures, out of which the fluid interior of the earth, fragments of rock and volcanic dust were poured in unim-

ited quantities. Hundreds of the nuclei or cones of these volcanic vents are now remaining, some of them rising to a height of 10,000 to 11,000 feet above the sea. Mounts Doane, Langford, Stevenson, and more than a hundred other peaks may be seen from any high point on either side of the basin, each of which formed the centre of effusion."

The region was unknown until after the discovery of gold on the Rocky Mountain slopes had attracted a venturesome population of miners and trappers to it. The first explorers brought back the most wonderful accounts of the Yellowstone country, and their reports were so much mingled with what was evidently exaggeration, that what truth they told was disbelieved. The first attempt to properly explore the region was made in 1859 by Colonel Reynolds of the Engineer Corps. He passed all around the Yellowstone basin, but could not penetrate it. In 1869 a small party, under Mr. Clarence Cook and Mr. Folsom, ascended the river to Yellowstone Lake and succeeded in exploring the basin. Since then other successful explorations have been made, and their reports have made this eighth wonder of the world familiar to the people of the country. In such a brief article as this the writer can only point out the more remarkable features of the basin, and must of necessity pass over many which would establish the fame of almost any other spot on the globe.

The route to the Yellowstone basin is from north to south, and commences at Fort Ellis, in the southwest corner of Montana. It lies through a country abounding in grand mountain scenery, and at Emigrant's Peak, which rises to a height of over 5000 feet above the Yellowstone valley, enters the wonderful country to which the reader's attention is asked. The wagon road terminates at Bottler's Ranch, opposite Emigrant Peak, and the remainder of the way must be travelled on horseback. From this point a fine valley leads up the river to the head of the Second Cañon of the Yellowstone. This is a narrow chasm a mile in length, with walls rising perpendicularly from the water's edge for over a thousand feet on each side. Through this cleft in the mountain the river rushes with great force.

Ten miles above the head of the Second Cañon is the Devil's Slide, a singular formation, consisting of two parallel vertical walls of rock fifty feet wide, which traverse the mountain from base to summit, and project to the height of 300 feet for a distance of 1500 feet. The sides are as even as if wrought by line and plumb, and the rock is perfectly smooth.

Ten miles above the Devil's Slide, Gardiner's River, a wild mountain torrent, breaks through a deep and gloomy gorge, and enters the Yellowstone at the lower end of the Third Cañon. Four miles up the valley of Gardiner's River are the famous Hot Springs, situated on the slope of a mountain. There are a number of these springs, covering an area of about one mile square, and a larger tract three or four miles square is covered with a still larger number of springs which have ceased to flow. The basins of the springs are generally about four by six feet in size and from one to four feet in depth. The water rises in the spring basin and flows down the mountain side from one reservoir to another, losing a portion of its heat at each successive fall. The temperature ranges at the spring basin from 126 to 132 degrees Fahrenheit. The basins are formed by the natural deposits left by the waters, and are of a snowy whiteness which contrasts strikingly with the hues of the surrounding rocks. Higher up the mountain is the largest of the active springs, twenty-five feet wide by forty feet long. The water holds in solution a great amount of lime, with some soda, alumina, and magnesia. Clouds of steam and hot vapors rise from a deep crevice surrounding the main spring, and the boiling and gurgling of the water down in its lowermost part can be distinctly heard. The springs are constantly shifting

their positions, new ones forming and old ones dying out. "Around the borders of these springs," says Professor Hayden, "especially those of rather low temperature, and on the sides and bottoms of the numerous little channels of the streams that flow from these springs, there is a striking variety of the most vivid colors—various shades of red, from the brightest scarlet to a bright rose tint; also yellow, from deep, bright sulphur, through all the shades, to light cream color. There are also various shades of green from the peculiar vegetation."

The Third Cañon of the Yellowstone is impassable. The trail leads to the left of it over a lofty, barren plateau, through which the river breaks in a winding cañon, known as the Third, or Middle Cañon, over 2000 feet in depth. Its descent is considerable through this gorge, and it rushes along in a foaming torrent in some places, but lies in others in pools of apparently unfathomable depth. At some points it appears from the lofty heights above a mere ribbon of foam, and its heavy roaring as it dashes through the gorge seems to the listener above only a subdued murmur. Above the head of the Third Cañon a large, fierce mountain stream, known as the Hell Roaring River, rushes into the Yellowstone.

Along the course of the latter river above this point are a number of wonderful ravines and cañons cut by the streams into the very heart of the mountain. We have not space to describe them. The most conspicuous of these is the Cañon of Tower Creek, which is so deep and gloomy that it is called the "Devil's Den." About 200 yards above its entrance into the Yellowstone the stream falls 156 feet at a single leap, forming one of the most beautiful falls in the country. The rocks around the fall are worn into the most fantastic shapes. "One can almost imagine," says Professor Hayden, "that the idea of the Gothic style of architecture had been caught from such carvings of nature."

A short distance above the mouth of Tower Creek the Yellowstone emerges from the Grand Cañon, the mouth of which defile constitutes one of the chief marvels of this marvellous region. The Grand Cañon is twenty miles in length, and extends from the mouth of Tower Creek to the foot of the Great Fall. It is impassable throughout its entire length, and accessible to the water's edge only at a few points and by dint of severe labor. The road leads over the country to the left of the cañon, by way of Mount Washburn, to the falls of the river.

"No language," says Professor Hayden, "can do justice to the wonderful beauty and grandeur of the Grand Cañon." There is nothing like it on the globe. It is from 1500 to 2500 feet deep, "and from the bed of the river," says Lieutenant Doane, who descended to the stream, "the stars could be distinctly seen" at three o'clock on a clear afternoon. The sides of the cañon have been carved by the waters that have flowed through it into fantastic resemblances to massive columns and Gothic pinnacles. "The basis material of the old hot-spring deposits in silica, originally as white as snow, are now stained by mineral waters with every shade of red and yellow, from scarlet to rose color, from bright sulphur to the daintiest tint of cream. When the light falls favorably on these blended tints, the Grand Cañon presents a more enchanting and bewildering variety of forms and colors than human artist ever conceived." The river rushes down the descent of the cañon with a hoarse roar, but the gazer peering down from the lofty cliffs can hear nothing. A deep and even painful silence fills the whole chasm as he gazes into it.

A mile above the head of the Grand Cañon is the Lower Fall of the Yellowstone. The river, 150 feet in width, leaps at a single bound over a smooth rocky precipice 350 feet in height, and rushes down to the Grand Cañon, a mile below, in which it disappears. The fall is superb. Half a mile above is the Upper Fall, the river



NEAR VIEW OF YOSEMITE FALLS.



THE GREAT GEYSER OF THE FIRE-HOLE
BASIN.



MIRROR LAKE; WATKINS' AND CLOUDS' REST, YOSEMITE VALLEY, CALIFORNIA.



SENTINEL ROCK YOSEMITE VALLEY.
(4,500 feet high above the Valley.)

between the two flowing through a cañon from 200 to 400 feet deep. The Upper Fall is 140 feet in height, and the precipice over which the stream plunges in a sheet of snow-white foam is perpendicular like that of the Lower Fall.

Above the Upper Fall the Yellowstone flows through a peaceful and grassy meadow-like valley. A mile or two above the falls a small stream known as Alum Creek flows into the Yellowstone. It rises in a group of alum and sulphur springs about ten miles above the falls. These springs are boiling actively, and emit clouds of steam and vapor. Steaming vapor also rushes from the crevices in the surface of the surrounding country, and deposits of pure crystallized sulphur are scattered about near them. The crust of the ground is treacherous in the vicinity of the springs, and a man's weight may easily break through it in some places. Professor Hayden thinks these springs and steam vents the remains of a series of once powerful but now slowly dying geysers.

A couple of miles above these springs, near the banks of the Yellowstone, is a not less remarkable group of sulphur and mud springs, and the country around them for some distance bears witness to having been covered with similar springs long since extinct. "The contents of most of them," says Mr. Langford, "were of the consistency of thick paint, which they greatly resembled, some being yellow, others pink, and others dark brown. This semifluid was boiling at a fearful rate. . . . The bubbles, often two feet in height, would explode with a puff, emitting each time a villanous smell of sulphuretted vapor."

Not far from this group of springs is the Muddy Geyser, which has a funnel-shaped orifice in the midst of a basin 150 feet in diameter, with sloping sides of clay and sand. The crater or orifice is about thirty feet in diameter. The flow of this geyser is regular every six hours. The water rises gradually, commencing to boil when about half way to the surface, and occasionally breaking forth in great violence. When the crater is filled it is expelled from it in a splashing, scattered mass, ten or fifteen feet in thickness, to a height of forty feet.

At the distance of a mile, perhaps, from the Muddy Geyser is the "Mud Volcano." It is situated in the midst of a grove of pines on the slope of a small hill. At irregular intervals it discharges through a crater thirty feet in diameter dense volumes of steam, with a loud, thundering report. "The reports," says Mr. Langford, "though irregular, occurred as often as every five seconds, and could be distinctly heard half a mile. Each alternate report shook the ground a distance of 200 yards or more, and the massive jets of vapor which accompanied them burst forth like the smoke of burning gunpowder." Discharges of mud are mingled with the steam, and are scattered for as much as 200 feet around the opening. Professor Hayden considers this the most important mud spring yet discovered in the West. The steam rising from it can be seen for many miles in every direction.

A few miles further up is Yellowstone Lake. The river leaves it in a channel a quarter of a mile wide, and is here a calm, deep stream. The lake itself is irregular in form, and is over twenty miles long and fifteen miles broad. It covers a superficial area of about 300 square miles. Its greatest depth is 300 feet, and its elevation above the sea 7427 feet. In its lofty position it has but one rival—Lake Titicaca in South America. It has no tributaries of any considerable size, and receives its clear, cold waters solely from the snows of the lofty mountain ranges that hem it in on every side. Its shores are paved with volcanic rocks, sometimes in masses, sometimes broken and worn into pebbles of trachyte, obsidian, chalcedony, cornelians, agates, and bits of agatized wood; and again, ground to obsidian sand and sprinkled with crystals of California diamonds. Vegetation is abundant both in and around the lake. The

waters swarm with trout, but no other fish of any kind exist in them. Water-fowl of various kinds are found about the lake in great numbers. The surrounding country is rich in game, from the muskrat to the elk, the grizzly bear, and the California lion.

The beauty of the lake has aroused the enthusiasm of all who have seen it. Even the cautious Hayden declares that "such a vision is worth a lifetime, and only *one* of such marvellous beauty will ever greet human eyes." "It is a fitting climax to all the wonders we had seen," says Mr. Langford, "and we gazed upon it for hours, entranced with its increasing attractions."

Hot springs strongly impregnated with mineral deposits are scattered around the lake on all sides. Some of these are large and important, but we have not the space to describe them here.

The eastern rim of the Yellowstone basin is formed by one of the grandest volcanic ranges in the world. The general level of the summits of these mountains is about 10,000 feet above the sea, while numerous peaks thrust their heads a thousand feet higher still. The three highest bear the names of Langford, Doane, and Stephenson, after the first explorers who ascended them.

Between the lake and this group of mountains is Brimstone Basin. The ground for several miles around is impregnated with sulphur and the air is tainted with sulphurous exhalations. The springs which occur in this tract are of the ordinary temperature, though the basin was evidently the scene of thermal activity within a comparatively recent period.

The upper Yellowstone rises in the high volcanic range which shuts off the Yellowstone basin from the Wind River drainage, and constitutes the great water-shed of the continent. It flows north into Yellowstone Lake.

About eight or ten miles south of Yellowstone Lake is a smaller body of water called Heart Lake, which is one of the sources of Snake River. Ten miles northwest of this is Madison Lake, the source of Madison River.

The main fork of the Madison River, from the lake to its junction with the South Fork, is known as the Firehole River. About ten miles below the lake it flows through a deep cañon, and as it emerges from this it falls over two ledges of rock, one twenty and the other fifty feet in height. A short distance below these falls the cañon widens, and both banks of the river are lined with a considerable number of hot springs in active operation. Two miles below the stream enters the Upper Geyser basin, the most wonderful portion of this whole region. It is an open, rolling valley, two miles wide and three miles long, the mountains on either side rising 1500 feet above the valley, with steep, heavily-timbered ledges of dark rock.

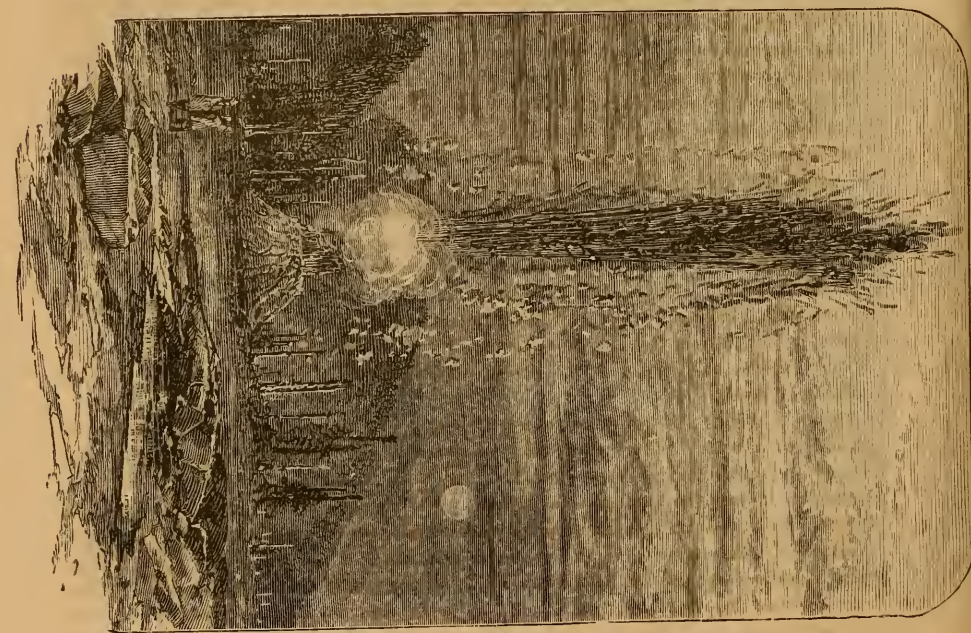
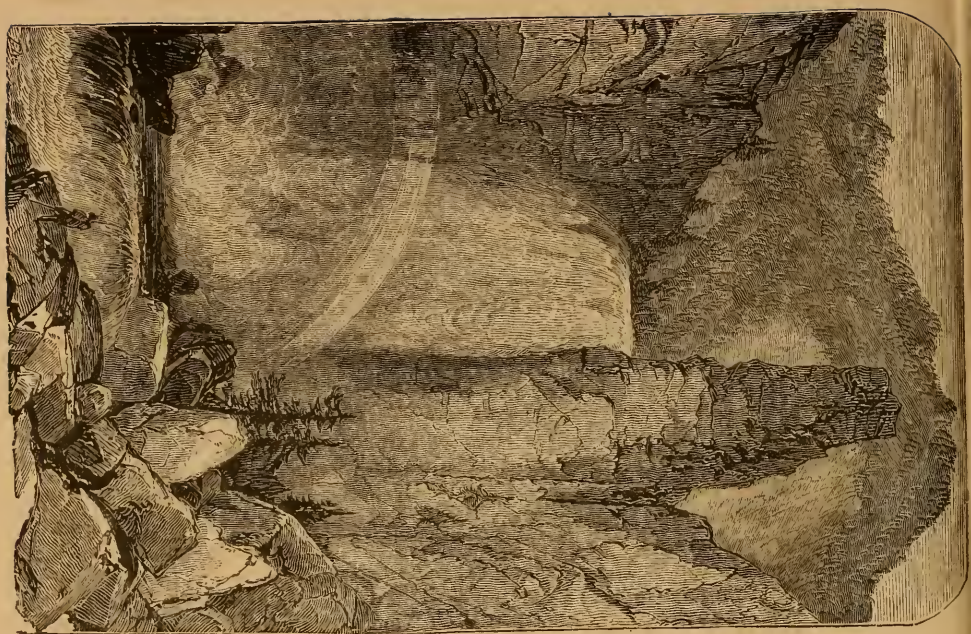
Scattered through this valley are a large number of powerful geysers. The principal of these are known as "Old Faithful," "The Beehive," "The Giantess," "Castle Geyser," "The Grand Geyser," "The Saw Mill," "The Giant," "The Grotto," "The Riverside," "The Fan Geyser," and "The Sentinels." These are all among the most powerful spouting springs in the world, sending up, when in action, vast columns of water from 50 to over 200 feet, and emitting dense clouds of steam. The exact number of geysers is not known. There are about 1500 hot springs in the upper basin, many of which Professor Hayden thinks may be geysers whose periods of activity have never been observed. "We could not distinguish," says Lieutenant Doane, "the geysers from the other hot springs, except by seeing them play, and doubtless there are many besides in the valley of great size, which we saw when quiet and chussed as boiling springs. . . . Taken as an aggregate, the Firehole basin surpasses all the other great wonders of the continent. It produces an effect on the mind of the beholder utterly staggering and overpowering. During the night we



CRATER OF GIANT GEYSER.



THE FAN GEYSER.



AND VOLCANOES.

were several times awakened by the rush of steam and the hissing of the waters, as the restless geysers spouted forth in the darkness. A constant rumbling, as of machinery in labor, filled the air, which was damp and warm throughout the night."

It will not be possible to describe each one of these marvels in detail; so we shall content ourselves with quoting the description of the "Grand Geyser," given by Lieutenant Doane:

"Opposite camp, on the other side of the river, is a high ledge of stalagmite, sloping from the base of the mountain down to the river. Numerous small knolls are scattered over its surface. The craters of the boiling springs are from fifteen to twenty-five feet in diameter; some of these throw water to the height of three or four feet. On the summit of this bank of rock is the grand geyser of the world—a well in the strata twenty by twenty-five feet in diametric measurements (the perceptible elevation of the rim being but a few inches), and when quiet having a visible depth of 100 feet. The edge of the basin is bounded by a heavy fringe of rock, and stalagmite in solid layers is deposited by the overflowing waters. When an eruption is about to occur the basin gradually fills with boiling water to within a few feet of the surface, then suddenly, with heavy concussions, immense clouds of steam rise to the height of 500 feet, and the whole great body of water, twenty by twenty-five feet, ascends in one gigantic column to the height of ninety feet. From the apex of this column five great jets shoot up, radiating slightly from each other, to the unparalleled altitude of 250 feet from the ground. The earth trembles under the descending deluge from this vast fountain; a thousand hissing sounds are heard in the air; rainbows encircle the summits of the jets with a halo of celestial glory. The falling water plows up and bears away the shelly strata, and a seething flood pours down the slope and into the river. It is the grandest, the most majestic, and most terrible fountain in the world. After playing thus for twenty minutes it gradually subsides, the water lowers into the crater out of sight, the steam ceases to escape, and all is quiet. This grand geyser played three times in the afternoon, but appears to be irregular in its periods, as we did not see it in eruption again while in the valley. Its waters are of a deep ultramarine color, clear and beautiful. The waving to and fro of the gigantic fountain, in a bright sunlight, when its jets are at their highest, affords a spectacle of wonder of which any description can give but a feeble idea."

Below the Upper Geyser basin the river flows for two or three miles through a region entirely free from hot springs, but which was once the scene of great thermal activity, and then enters the Lower Geyser basin, which covers an area of about thirty square miles. This valley is filled with hundreds of hot springs, many of them powerful geysers. Over a thousand steam jets may be seen rising in the air from any commanding point of view. "I can compare the view," says Professor Hayden, "to nothing but that of some manufacturing city like Pittsburgh, as seen from a high point, except that instead of the black coal smoke there are here the white, delicate clouds of steam."

Such is a brief and imperfect account of the Yellowstone region and its wonders. The most complete report published concerning it is that of Professor Hayden, the chief of the Geological Survey of 1870. As soon as this was published efforts were made to induce the General Government to set aside a portion of the Yellowstone region for the undivided benefit, enjoyment, and instruction of the country at large. Congress readily acceded to this demand, and passed a bill, which was approved by the President on the 1st of March, 1872, setting apart the region embracing the Yellowstone from the head-waters of the upper river to the Second Cañon, and the geyser basins, as a National Park. The bill states the boundaries of this park as

follows: "Commencing at the junction of Gardiner's River with the Yellowstone River, and running east to the meridian passing ten miles to the eastward of the most eastern point of Yellowstone Lake; thence southward along said meridian to the parallel of latitude passing ten miles south of the most southern point of Yellowstone Lake; thence west along said parallel to the meridian passing fifteen miles west of the most western point of Madison Lake; thence north along said meridian to the latitude of the junction of the Yellowstone and Gardiner's River; thence east to the place of beginning."

The law declares that this tract is "reserved and withdrawn from settlement, occupancy, or sale under the laws of the United States, and dedicated and set apart as a public park or pleasuring ground for the benefit and enjoyment of the people; and all persons who shall locate or settle upon or occupy the same, or any part thereof, except as hereinafter provided, shall be considered trespassers and removed therefrom."

It is further provided that "said public park shall be under the exclusive control of the Secretary of the Interior, whose duty it shall be, as soon as practicable, to make and publish such rules and regulations as he may deem necessary or proper for the care and management of the same. Such regulations shall provide for the preservation from injury or spoliation of all timber, mineral deposits, natural curiosities or wonders within said park, and their retention in their natural condition. The Secretary may, in his discretion, grant leases for building purposes for terms not exceeding ten years, of small parcels of ground, at such places in said park as shall require the erection of buildings for the accommodation of visitors; all of the proceeds of said leases, and all other revenues that may be derived from any source connected with said park, to be expended under his direction in the management of the same and the construction of roads and bridle-paths therein." He is also authorized to take measures to prevent the wanton destruction of the game and fish found within the park, and to prevent their capture and destruction for purposes of merchandise or profit.

Under this Act, the Hon. N. P. Langford, one of the first to render the public familiar with its wonders, has been appointed Superintendent of the Park.

COATS OF ARMS.



UNITED STATES.



MAINE



NEW HAMPSHIRE.



VERMONT.



MASSACHUSETTS.



RHODE ISLAND.



CONNECTICUT.

COATS OF ARMS.



NEW YORK.



NEW JERSEY.



PENNSYLVANIA.



DELAWARE.



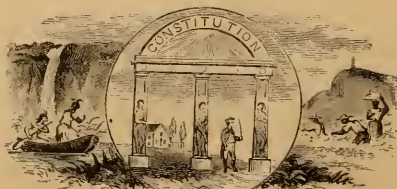
MARYLAND.



VIRGINIA.



NORTH CAROLINA.



GEORGIA.

COATS OF ARMS.



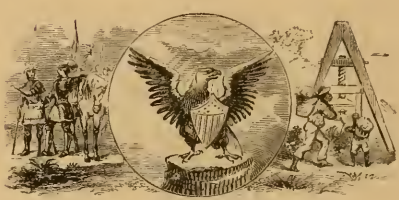
SOUTH CAROLINA.



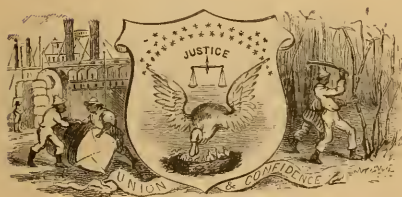
FLORIDA.



ALABAMA.



MISSISSIPPI.



LOUISIANA.



TEXAS.



WEST VIRGINIA.



TENNESSEE.

COATS OF ARMS.



KENTUCKY.



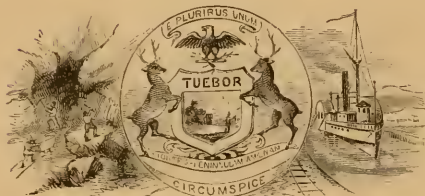
OHIO.



INDIANA.



ILLINOIS.



MICHIGAN.



WISCONSIN.



MINNESOTA.



IOWA.

COATS OF ARMS.



MISSOURI.



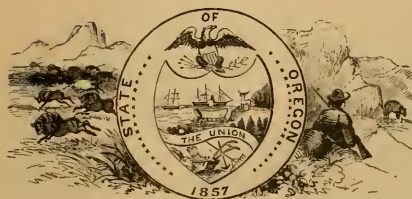
ARKANSAS.



KANSAS.



CALIFORNIA.



OREGON.



COLORADO.



UTAH.



INDEPENDENCE HALL.

Where the Declaration was signed and the great Bell rung out the proclamation of Liberty.



CARPENTER'S HALL.

Where the first Continental Congress assembled.



BIRTHPLACE OF LIBERTY.

Building in which the Declaration of Independence was written.

A CENTURY OF FREE GOVERNMENT. ITS RESULTS. A CONTRAST.

The 4th day of July, 1876, closes the first century of the distinct and separate existence of the United States of America as a free and independent nation. That which was an experiment one hundred years ago is now an accomplished fact, and has been worked out to its successful conclusion in the presence of, and under the close and not always friendly inspection of, the civilized world. It is fitting and useful, therefore, from the point we have reached to look back over the way we have come, to mark the course that has been pursued, and to ponder the lessons and warnings which our past history offers for our future guidance.

The formation of the American Republic was an experiment in every sense of the word. There had been republics in the past, and they had failed to answer the ends for which they were devised. They had been founded upon the principle of the rule of an hereditary aristocratic class, and had made little or no provision for the protection of the rights and liberties of the great mass of the common people. Naturally they had perished. They had drifted into monarchy as the only refuge open to them from anarchy. Their failure was held by all Europe to teach the stern lesson that men were incapable of self-government, and that the "divine rule" of kings was essential to the existence as well as the prosperity of a country. When, therefore, it became known in Europe that the people of America had set up a government republican in form, and democratic in principle, it was the universal conviction of thinking men that the new experiment was destined to a speedy and ignominious failure.

Nor were the founders of the American Republic themselves free from anxiety. They were aware that the system they had set up differed in its most essential principles from those that had failed in the old world; that the equality of all men before the law, and the government of the people by themselves and not by a class, formed the basis of their system—a vital principle which had been lacking in the republics of Europe—but in spite of all this they were profoundly anxious, and viewed their work as an experiment which might fail, and which would certainly do so unless the people of the country should, by cultivating the virtues of citizenship, prepare themselves to deserve its perpetuation.

Their hopes were well expressed by Washington in a letter to Lafayette, written upon the adjournment of the Convention which framed the Constitution—an instrument which, though framed eleven years after the assertion of independence and the establishment of republican government, embodied in one system the principles upon which the Republic was founded in the first instance. The anxiety which he shared with his compatriots manifests itself through all his hopefulness: "It appears to me," he writes, "little short of a miracle that the delegates from so many States, different from each other, as you know, in their manners, circumstances, and prejudices, should unite in forming a system of national government so little liable to well-founded objections. Nor am I such an enthusiastic, partial, or indiscriminating admirer of it as not to perceive it is tinctured with some real, though not radical, defects. With regard to the two great points—the pivots upon which the whole machine must move—my creed is simply, First. That the General Government is not invested with more powers than are indispensably necessary to perform the functions of a good government; and consequently that no objection ought to be made against the quantity of power delegated to it.

"Secondly. That these powers, as the appointment of all rulers will forever arise

from, and at short, stated intervals recur to, the free suffrages of the people, are so distributed among the legislative, executive, and judicial branches into which the General Government is arranged, that it can never be in danger of degenerating into a monarchy, an oligarchy, an aristocracy, or any other despotic or oppressive form, so long as there shall remain any virtue in the body of the people.

"It will at least be a recommendation to the proposed Constitution, that it is provided with more checks and barriers against the introduction of tyranny, and those of a nature less liable to be surmounted, than any government hitherto instituted among mortals.

"We are not to expect perfection in this world; but mankind, in modern times, have apparently made some progress in the science of government. Should that which is now offered to the people of America be found on experiment less perfect than it can be made, a constitutional door is left open for its amelioration."

Looking back now over the century which has elapsed since the great work was begun, we may fairly inquire whether the fears of the founders or the unfriendly assertions of Europe have been realized.

The experiment was begun, it must be remembered, by a young and feeble country, already involved in a difficult and burdensome struggle with one of the first military and naval powers of Europe. It was an open question whether the effort for independence could succeed. The States had few interests in common besides their endangered liberties, and it was confidently predicted that they would never hang together, but would either separate in a few years and return to the protection of England, or that the republican system would give way to a great monarchy or a number of separate monarchies. In any event republicanism was doomed to run its usual course and end in failure.

To the astonishment of Europe the Republic survived its early trials and conquered its independence; but upon the return of peace it found itself face to face with numerous serious difficulties, many of which threatened to rend it into fragments. The predictions which had greeted the commencement of its existence seemed nearer their realization than ever, and it was confidently believed that the end was close at hand.

Let us examine the prophecies of Europe for the future of the Republic, and see how far they have been fulfilled during the hundred years that have tested the stability and virtues of our institutions.

I. It was predicted that the Americans, as republicans, would be unstable, visionary, given to change; that instead of striving after a possible system of government, and seeking to secure its permanence, they would exhaust their energies in attempting to set up wild and impracticable systems.

II. It was predicted that the personal independence and the freedom of speech secured to every man would result in general insubordination; that men would be led to think their own ideas supreme, and would thus be unwilling to submit to any defined standard, and that the body politic thus becoming unmanageable, the country would be so beset with insubordination and rebellion that it would welcome a monarchy or even a despotism as the only escape from anarchy.

III. It was predicted that the Republic, even if it escaped or survived these troubles, would be constantly involved in wars with other nations, and so prevented from enjoying the peace necessary to the development of its resources; that foreign nations would take advantage of its weakness to wrest its territory from it whenever the opportunity offered itself.

IV. It was predicted that the Government, being republican in form, could not be made strong enough to offer adequate protection to industry; that in the unhappy

state of affairs which would ensue men would not seek to accumulate property which might be swept away from them by some disturbance, and the country would thus remain poor.

Time, the great trier of all men's work, has tested the system founded by our fathers, and the results of the century have vindicated their wisdom and refuted the assertions of the unfriendly prophets of ruin, whose predictions we have recorded.

The century has shown a wonderful increase in the extent, population, prosperity, and power of the Republic, and has witnessed no change in its form of government. It has shown that a republican form of government can develop both the resources and the power of a country. So far from being visionary, given to change, or to following wild and impracticable fancies, the American people have devoted themselves to the perfection and consolidation of the system with which they began their national existence. The wise founders of that system, appreciating the future growth of the country, and believing that that growth would reveal defects in their work, placed it in the power of their children to remedy them by constitutional amendments. Thus during the century there have been changes made in the fundamental law of the land, modifying or enlarging the powers of the Government, securing the rights of the governed, and stating more clearly the principles of the Constitution; but no radical or even trivial change has been made in the character of our system. It is still the same, except that it has been made more perfect. Believing that its principles are eternal, the American people have cherished as their most precious possession the system of free republican government bequeathed to them by their fathers, and have always resented the slightest attempt to interfere with or change its principles.

We have shown that republican institutions are strong enough to deal with the questions that have perplexed monarchical Europe, and to settle them on a safe and satisfactory basis. We have dispensed with large standing armies, and yet we are strong at home and feared and respected abroad. The defence of the country is intrusted to the whole body of citizens, and we have shown that a citizen army and navy capable of contending with the strongest powers, and of waging one of the most formidable wars of history, can be raised at the moment of need. We have no class interests to array our people in hostile divisions. Each man is the equal before the law of all his fellow-citizens, and the highest places in the State are open to the humblest who by force of his own genius can rise to them. The welfare of the State is the direct concern of every citizen. We have shown that the education of the masses is the bulwark of popular liberty. We have separated Church and State, and permit neither to intrude upon the domain of the other, and we have shown this to be to the advantage of both. We have given men the largest liberty in every relation of life, and have shown that this is perfectly compatible with a sound and vigorous political and social system.

Nor has the large liberty of the people been found inconsistent with the firm exercise of a strong government. Men have become free in America, and have become settled in the opinion that their freedom rests upon a prompt and willing obedience to the law. The happy arrangement of our confederated system, by which each State charges itself with the administration of its own local affairs, leaving the care for the general welfare to the Federal Government, renders easy the direct and vigilant enforcement of the law. There is no dispute as to the powers of the State and Federal Governments. Each is submitted to cheerfully, and neither conflicts with the other.

So far from having become visionary and unstable, the American people are known as the most thoroughly wedded to their system, and the most determined to maintain it, of any nation upon the globe. They are not blindly wedded to it, nor do they think

it has yet attained its highest development. They are prepared to accept any improvements which the future may show to be necessary; and fortunately for them their fundamental law provides for the peaceful and ready accomplishment of this. But they believe that the principles of equality and of civil and religious freedom upon which their system is founded are eternal, and can never be lost by a virtuous people.

The assertion that the personal independence and the freedom of speech secured to every citizen of the Republic would result in general insubordination; that men would be led to think their own ideas supreme; that the minority would never submit to the majority, and that the body politic, being thus unmanageable, the country would be so given over to insubordination and rebellion that a monarchy would be indispensable as the only refuge from anarchy—this assertion has likewise been refuted by the events of the century. Republican government has been found strong enough to perpetuate itself. There is no country in the world where a more willing obedience to the law is rendered by its citizens. In this country the obedience is voluntary, and we are saved the necessity of enforcing the law by means of vast standing armies and large police forces, such as those which eat up the strength of European countries. The minority have been found to yield cheerfully to the majority, as is witnessed every four years in the choice of the Chief Magistrate of the nation, and in the more frequent elections of the officers of the Federal, State, and municipal governments. Parties the most antagonistic in political beliefs—yet agreeing on the great questions of free government—yield their places and power to their successful opponents with promptness and without for a moment entertaining a thought of seeking to retain them by force; trusting for their restoration to power only to the free expression of the will of the people at the polls. During the whole century we have had but one rebellion, and but five or six riots of importance. Even the rebellion was not an effort to break up the system of government, but merely an attempt on the part of certain States to withdraw from the Union. They gave the highest testimony in their power to the excellence of the *system* by seeking to perpetuate it in a new confederacy. As for the system, its proudest triumph has been won in the successful reconstruction of the Union. But ten years have elapsed since the close of our civil war, and yet the conquered States are again members of the Republic, in full fellowship with their triumphant sisters; enjoying every right guaranteed by the Constitution, and in the full exercise of free republican government. The supremacy of the Constitution has been maintained, a great war has been waged, and the result has been to enlarge the liberties of the nation and to ground them more solidly in the hearts of the people. There have been no attainders for treason, no executions or confiscations. The victors have treated the vanquished as brothers, and the vanquished, on their part, have reassumed their places within the Union, frankly accepting the results of the war, and firmly resolved to maintain the system which has been so fairly and terribly tested. He who would undertake to propose a monarchy on the American continent to-day would be regarded as an idiot.

It was predicted that the Republic, even if it escaped or survived the intestine troubles prophesied for it, would be constantly involved in wars with other countries, and so prevented from enjoying the peace necessary to the development of its resources; that foreign nations would take advantage of its weakness to wrest its territory from it whenever the opportunity offered itself.

Our history during the century has shown that we are not an aggressive people. We went to war with Great Britain for the preservation of our liberties and the establishment of our independence. The struggle lasted eight years. It was followed, after

an interval of fifteen years of peace, by hostilities with France, into which the Republic was dragged by the efforts of the French Government to destroy our commerce. The outrages of the Barbary States of Africa drew us into war, in 1803, with Tripoli and Algiers. It was a naval warfare only, and was maintained with credit, 3000 miles from home, for nearly five years. Seven years more of peace followed. In 1812 the Republic was forced to take up arms to defend its commerce and sailors against its old enemy, Great Britain. Peace was made at the close of 1814. The next year the Republic compelled the African pirates to respect its commerce, and so rendered a service to mankind. Thirty-one years of peace followed. Then came the war with Mexico, lasting about two years. This was our last foreign war. In neither of those we have mentioned was the Republic the aggressor. It took up the sword simply to defend its rights, which had been assailed, and laid it down as soon as protection for those rights had been secured. Including the War of Independence, but twenty years of the whole century have been passed by this country in foreign wars, and between each of the more important of these wars there has been a long interval of peace.

The country has found ample time for the development of its resources, as its condition to-day proves. Our energies have been turned in the direction of peace, and we have found time to settle our quarrels with other nations without sacrificing our home interests.

The prediction that our weakness would expose us to the attacks of foreign powers has never been fulfilled. We have never been weak enough for this since the declaration of our independence. We successfully resisted Great Britain in the Revolution, compelled France and the Barbary powers to respect our commerce, and wrung from Great Britain, in our second struggle with her, the protection we claimed for our seamen and commerce. Thus, while the Republic was still weak and struggling with its early difficulties, it proved itself too strong to be assailed by any foreign power. Since the close of the second war with England it has occupied a position of such growing strength and prosperity that, so far from seeking to molest it, foreign powers have sought its friendship, and have cordially recognized its importance in the political system of the world. To-day it takes rank with the great powers of the world. It is regarded by European nations as a valuable friend or a dangerous foe.

From the date of its formation the Republic has never lost a foot of its territory by conquest or by sale. On the contrary, the Republic has grown steadily in territorial extent by purchase, cession, and conquest. In 1775 the area of the United Colonies was about 1,000,000 of square miles, embracing only a narrow strip of country along the Atlantic from Canada to Florida. It has grown by successive additions until its total area is now nearly 4,000,000 square miles. Its eastern and western boundaries are the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and it stretches from the forty-ninth almost to the twenty-fifth parallel of north latitude. In 1776 the population of the Republic was about 3,000,000. In 1870 it was 38,547,229, and in 1876 it is believed by Professor E. B. Elliott, of Washington City, will be 45,627,000.

Looking back over the century we cannot help smiling at the last prediction we have related here—that the Government, being republican in form, could not be made strong enough to offer adequate protection to industry; that in the unhappy state of affairs which would ensue men would not seek to accumulate property. We cannot better show the failure of this prophecy than by contrasting the condition of the country a century ago with its condition to-day.

In 1776 but a few wretched roads connected the distant parts of the Republic. Now all parts are brought into close and intimate relations with each other by lines of

railway and canals. Splendid steamers navigate our bays, lakes, and rivers, and the feeble and precarious trade of colonial days has expanded into a mighty and growing system of commerce which has made America one of the first commercial nations on the globe. In 1874 there were about 64,000 miles of railway in operation in the United States. The telegraph was unknown at the commencement of our national existence. There are now about 60,000 miles of wire in operation in this country.

In 1776 the manufactures of the country were few and limited to articles of prime necessity. In 1870 there were 252,148 manufacturing establishments in the United States, employing a capital of \$2,118,208,769, and producing manufactured articles to the value of \$4,232,325,442 annually.

In 1790 the tonnage of the United States engaged in foreign trade was only a little over half a million. In 1860 it exceeded six millions. It decreased during the civil war in consequence of the depredations of the Anglo-Confederate cruisers, but it is now rapidly reviving, and ranks next to that of Great Britain. In 1875 the total value of goods imported into the United States from foreign countries was \$533,005,436. The total value of exports for the same year was \$513,442,711.

In 1790 the cultivation of cotton was in its infancy. In 1860 the crop amounted to 5,198,077 bales, and in 1870 to 3,011,996 bales.

Besides the larger crops, the value of orchard and market garden products in 1870 was \$68,054,418. In the same year the value of home-made articles was \$23,433,332; the value of slaughtered animals \$398,956,376. The cash value of farms was \$9,262,803,861; the value of farming implements and machinery \$336,878,429.

The inventive genius of the country has supplied every demand which its rapid development has created. To Americans the world owes the application of steam to navigation, the invention of the electric telegraph, the sewing machine, the cotton gin, the reaping machine, and the great improvements in the steam engine and the printing press. "The States were behind us," says Mr. Charles Reade. "They soon advanced upon us and caught us, and now they head us far. . . . Europe teems with the material products of American genius. . . . In a word, America is the leading nation in all matters of material invention and construction, and no other nation rivals nor approaches her."

No man feels that he is accumulating wealth here at the risk of losing it by civil disturbances. Property is held here by as secure a tenure as in any country in Europe. So far from being timid in the pursuit of wealth, Americans are noted for the boldness and magnitude of their financial operations. They have the reputation of caring quite as much for money as the most ardent monarchist, and of having more money than any other nation.

There can be no question that wealth is more generally distributed in the United States than in European countries. We have few colossal fortunes, though in that respect we have some men who could rival the "money kings" of the old world; but our people, as a whole and as individuals, are more comfortable, are better off, and live better and dress better than those of European countries. This is especially true of the working class. As a rule our people live in separate houses, and these are generally the property of their occupants. Even among the working class the number of persons owning their dwellings is greater than in European States.

Not only are the American people as a general rule better off in purse than Europeans, they are cleaner and neater in their persons, homes, and habits. This comparison of course does not apply to persons in the better walks of life, for that class in all countries is careful as to its mode of life. The mass of the people in the

Republic are better dressed, cleaner in their homes and personal habits, bathe oftener, and are possessed of more refinement than the same class of people in Europe.

Fortunately for the Republic it has as yet no pauper class to be supported out of the earnings of the industrious population. The pauper class, as it exists among us, is small and may be divided into two portions—those receiving assistance in established institutions, and those leading a vagrant life, supporting themselves by begging. It is not possible to obtain any estimate of the latter, but it is generally admitted that it is made up chiefly of foreigners. In 1870 the total native population of the Union was 32,991,142; the total foreign population 5,567,229. In the same year the number of persons receiving assistance in public institutions was 76,737. Of these 53,939 were natives; 22,798 foreigners. The foreign population is between one-seventh and one-eighth of the whole number of our people. It furnished over one-fourth of the paupers in 1870. The ratio was about one pauper to every 610 native inhabitants, and about one pauper to every 245 foreigners.

So too with crime. It is a well-known fact that our prisons are filled chiefly with foreign criminals. The graver offences are confined almost entirely to this class. In 1870 the ratio of persons in prison was one prisoner to every 1365 native inhabitants, and one prisoner to every 623 foreigners.

But it is not only in material wealth that our country has improved in such a marked degree. In the higher departments of intellectual progress its development has kept pace with its growth in riches.

In 1800 there were but 200 newspapers published in the United States. In 1870 the number of newspapers and periodicals was 5871; their aggregate circulation 20,842,475 copies; and the number annually printed 1,508,548,250.

At the opening of the century there were few libraries in this country, and these were chiefly in the hands of private individuals. In 1870 there were in the United States 164,815 public and private libraries, containing 45,528,938 volumes.

In 1790 there were not more than a dozen colleges in the Union, and the common schools were confined to the New England States. In 1870, according to the ninth census, there were 2454 colleges and professional and scientific schools in the United States, with an attendance of 255,190 pupils. The private schools in the same year numbered 14,025, with 726,688 pupils; and the free public schools 125,059, with an attendance of 6,228,060 pupils. The total income of all these establishments during that year was \$95,402,726. In the same year there were but 748,970 white males, and 1,145,718 white females of twenty-one years and over among the inhabitants of the United States who could not write. The total number of persons of ten years and over who could not read was 4,528,084.

Our people are just as moral as those of any other land. We have more churches than any country in Europe, and our people take more interest in religion than any other. Our benevolent institutions compare favorably with those of any European country, and are as well supported. Foreigners have often given us the credit of being the only religious nation in the world; yet we have no State church or established religion, and no laws compelling conformity to religious customs.

In fine, it may be said that the condition of our country at the close of its first century of existence shows that a republic is as well adapted to the task of developing and building up the prosperity, power, and morality of a country as a monarchy; and comparing our rate of growth with that of the old world, we are justified in believing that a republic is the best system for the accomplishment of such a task. There is not an instance in history of such a wonderful growth as ours in the short space of a century.

Having thus stated the results of our first century as concerns ourselves alone, let us glance at the course of events in the old world, and contrast the history of European nations during this period with our own. Such a task will be both interesting and profitable, and will convey many useful lessons which we will do well to ponder.

We have shown that during the century we have had, apart from the Revolution, but two foreign wars of importance—the brief contests with France and Algiers being mere episodes in our history. But even including these, the whole period of foreign war has been but twenty years. The two important contests—the second war with England and the Mexican war—covered a period of but six years. Our first century has been a period of almost unbroken peace—the longest period of protracted peace known in all history.

Prior to the commencement of our century the history of Europe is a record of almost constant war. During the period we are considering we have enjoyed a greater degree of peace than any of the nations of Europe. During this period England has had eight foreign wars (besides her Indian, Persian, and Chinese wars), covering a period of twenty-eight years. These were: 1. The war with France on account of the aid rendered to the Americans by that power, which lasted from 1778 to 1783. 2. A war with Spain, extending from 1780 to 1783. 3. A war with Holland at the same time. 4. A war with France growing out of the French Revolution, and lasting from 1793 to 1802. 5. A war with the Confederation of the North in 1801. 6. The war against Napoleon I., extending from 1803 to 1815. 7. The war with the United States, from 1812 to 1815. 8. The Crimean war with Russia, from 1854 to 1856. Besides these European conflicts, England has had nine wars in India, two with China, one with Persia, and one with Abyssinia.

France has spent forty years out of the century in foreign wars. These conflicts were: 1. A war with England in 1778, growing out of the alliance with the United States, and lasting until 1783. 2. The wars of the Revolution and of Napoleon, commencing in 1792 and lasting until 1815. Some of these wars were aggressive on the part of France. In 1793 she made war upon England; in 1812 against Russia; and in 1813 against Austria, Russia, and Prussia. 3. The Crimean war against Russia—fought in alliance with England, Turkey, and Sardinia—from 1854 to 1856. 4. The war against Austria, in behalf of Sardinia, in 1859. 5. The Mexican war, from 1862 to 1864. 6. The war with Germany, in 1870.

Prussia—one of the strongest of monarchies—cannot compare with us in our record of peace, although its boast is that its policy is peaceful. In 1792 she made war upon France for the purpose of undoing the work of the Revolution. Peace was made in 1795. In 1806 Prussia again made war upon France, and continued it with but a slight interval of peace until 1815. In 1848 she made war upon Denmark, in aid of the Duchies, continuing the struggle until 1850. In December, 1863, she again assailed Denmark in the Schleswig-Holstein war, which continued until November, 1864. In 1866 occurred the “seven weeks’ war” with Austria, and in 1870 the war with France.

Russia has been almost constantly at war during the century. In 1793 she had war with Poland, growing out of the partition of that country, and lasting several years. The war for the conquest of the Crimea, which began in 1769, was continued until 1784. In 1796 there was war between Russia and Persia, and in 1798 Russia joined the alliance of England and Austria against revolutionary France. In 1805 she joined the coalition against Napoleon. Peace was made with France in 1807. In 1809 she declared war with Turkey; and in 1812 war again broke out between Russia and France. In 1826 war was begun with Persia, and was continued until 1828. In 1828

another war began with Turkey. In 1840 a new war broke out with Persia. In 1849 Russia took part in the Hungarian war in support of Austria. In 1853 Russia began the war with Turkey, which resulted, in 1854, in the Crimean war. In 1872 war was declared against Khiva.

Austria is perhaps the most peaceful of the nations of continental Europe, and has not infrequently submitted to dishonor and loss of territory in order to indulge her love of peace. Yet even Austria cannot compare with us in the enjoyment of peace during the century. In 1777 she made war upon Bavaria. Peace was made in 1779. In 1788 she engaged in a war with the Turks, which lasted until 1780. In 1792 Austria joined the coalition against the French Republic, and from this time until the downfall of Napoleon, in 1815, was almost constantly engaged in war with France. In 1848 she was engaged in the fierce struggle with Hungary, which was decided only by the intervention of Russia. In the same year war broke out between Austria and Sardinia. In 1859 there was war between Austria, France, and Sardinia. In 1864 she engaged with Prussia against Denmark, in the Schleswig-Holstein war; and in 1866 fought Prussia in the "seven weeks' war," which resulted in her expulsion from Germany.

Neither Spain nor Italy can compare with us in immunity from foreign war. The former has had twice as many wars as the American Republic, and the latter has been drawn into every European struggle of importance during the period we are considering.

The history of the century shows, then, that the only important nation of the civilized world that has been comparatively free from foreign war, and has remained at peace with its neighbors, is the United States of America. Monarchical government has not saved Europe from almost constant war, while republican institutions have preserved for this country an almost unbroken peace with all the world. It would seem a fair inference, then, that a free republican government is more calculated to keep peace with other nations than a monarchy.

As our country has been freer from foreign war during the century, so also has it been safer from defeat. In all our foreign wars we have been successful. England has been defeated several times—in the American Revolution and in the first war of the French Revolution. France was defeated and crushed at the end of Napoleon's wars, and again in the war with Germany, in 1870-71. Prussia was beaten in the first war of the French Revolution, and again by Napoleon in 1806. Russia was defeated in the Crimean war. Austria was conquered in her wars with Napoleon; in the Italian war of 1859, and in the war with Prussia in 1866. Italy was repeatedly conquered during the wars of the French Revolution and of Napoleon, and in 1866 was beaten by Austria and saved only by Prussia. Spain was defeated in her war with England in 1796, and was conquered by Napoleon in 1808-09. Thus it would seem that a republic is as well fitted as a monarchy to conduct successful foreign wars, and to preserve the integrity of its territory. We have not lost a foot of ground by foreign war, but on the contrary have gained a vast extent of country by it. There is not a European power that has not been compelled to part with some of its possessions during the past century as the price of peace. The only civilized power that has never experienced this humiliation is the American Republic, which, it was predicted at the opening of the century, would be torn to pieces by the stronger nations of Europe.

We have had but one civil war or rebellion during the century. It was predicted at the outset that we would be constantly exposed to such struggles, and that our Government would not possess sufficient strength to quell them and preserve domestic

peace by force. Our civil war lasted four years, and was one of the most formidable known to history. It was conducted, however, with less brutality, less violence and pillage than any internecine struggle the world has ever known. Our Government was found amply sufficient to maintain its authority, to conquer the most formidable revolt ever known, and yet to remain true to its constitutional obligations, and to respect the rights and liberties of its people. Nay, more, as we have said elsewhere, it was strong enough also to treat the conquered people as citizens of a free country, and to restore them to the enjoyment of their citizenship within a few years after the return of peace.

England has had her Irish rebellion of 1798, and her Sepoy revolt of 1857.

France was plunged into civil war almost immediately upon the breaking out of the Revolution in 1789, and in 1793 the terrible struggle in La Vendée began. She has had since then the Revolutions of 1830 and 1848; the *Coup d'Etat* and civil war of 1851; and the rebellion of the Commune in 1871.

Nor has Prussia, with all her strength and admirable administration, been free from civil war. The liberal rebellion of 1848 was a short but severe struggle, and extended over all Germany. The war of 1866 was in many respects a civil war as regards the Prussian territory of to-day.

Russia has just quelled the great rebellion of the Cossacks, and was engaged in suppressing a similar revolt in the Crimea at the opening of our century. In 1795 the first revolt of the Poles took place, and required a bloody struggle to suppress it. In 1830 Poland again revolted and was crushed with merciless severity. In 1861 a new insurrection broke out in Poland and continued until the next year. In 1840, and again in 1872, there were severe outbreaks in the Russian dominions in Asia.

Austria has suffered severely from the same cause. In 1797 a revolt in Lombardy cost her that province. In 1848 there were outbreaks in Milan, Venice, and her other Italian possessions. In the same year a formidable outbreak at Vienna compelled the emperor to fly from his capital. In 1848 Hungary rose in revolt, and the insurrection was quelled only by the intervention of Russia, who feared the disturbance would extend to her own dominions.

Spain has been almost constantly engaged in civil war. In 1808 there was the outbreak in the Asturias. In 1820 the Revolution began in January, and lasted until the middle of the year 1823. In 1834 the first Carlist war began, lasting until 1839. In 1841 an uprising was made by the friends of Queen Christina against the Regent Espartero. He crushed it, but a new outbreak began at Barcelona the next year, only to be quelled. In 1843 a general uprising took place throughout the kingdom, resulting in the banishment of Espartero. In 1851 Cuba rebelled against Spain. In 1854 Espartero, by a successful military insurrection, made himself prime minister. In 1856 there was a new insurrection at Valencia, Madrid, Barcelona, and Saragossa. In 1866 an insurrection under General Prim took place. In 1868 Prim and Serrano led another revolution which overthrew the monarchy, drove the queen from the country, and resulted in the formation of a provisional government under Prim. In 1869 there was an outbreak of the Carlists and Republicans against the provisional government. In 1873, Amadeus having resigned the Spanish crown, a revolt ensued, which resulted in the establishment of the Republic. Another revolt overthrew this government in 1874 and restored the monarchy. In 1872 the Carlist war began in the northern provinces, and at the close of 1875 is still going on, without any immediate prospect of peace.

Italy has been the home of revolution and civil war during our century. The wars which followed the French Revolution were largely civil. In 1820 there was civil

war in the kingdom of Naples, followed by an insurrection the next year in the kingdom of Sardinia. In 1831 there was an outbreak in central Italy. In 1848 almost the whole of Italy was engaged in civil war. In 1859, upon the commencement of the final efforts for Italian freedom and unity, civil war again began and continued for several years until the kingdom of Italy was formed, and included in its limits all Italy.

From this survey it will appear that a free republic is less inclined to civil war and rebellion than a monarchy, is equally capable of dealing with and settling such troubles when they do come, and is able to settle them upon better and more patriotic terms than a monarchy.

With regard to minor insurrections and riots, our country has been singularly free from such disturbances. We have had but seven worth mentioning in all our history. These were: 1. The whiskey rebellion. 2. Shays' rebellion. 3. The Kansas troubles. 4. The Mormon insurrection. 5. The John Brown raid. 6. The draft riots in New York in 1863. 7. The Orange riot in New York in 1871.

Riots and local insurrections are of common occurrence in Europe, and European governments are obliged to keep strong forces of military and police in readiness for instant service in suppressing them. England suffers greatly from the periodical disturbances in her mining districts. In Ireland riots between the Orangemen and the Roman Catholics, or between the Fenians and the royal police, are well known. France suffers from the same cause, her riots being largely due to political causes, and being of a very desperate and brutal character. Prussia has had a large number of riots during the century, many of them arising from socialistic causes, or being due to the high price of bread or beer. In Russia political and religious causes have produced a number of riots and local insurrections, some of which have been quite formidable. We might extend these remarks to Austria, Italy, and Spain, and to the little kingdom of Belgium, which has given some very marked specimens of disturbance of this kind since its foundation, less than half a century ago.

From what we have shown it seems clear that a free republic is less liable to insurrections and riots than a monarchy. The reason is evident. The discontent which prevails among the less favored classes of Europe does not exist here, where all men are secured equality before the law, and full protection of their liberties and privileges, and where each one may rise to the highest point of wealth or distinction to which his individual genius will carry him.

During the century we are considering our Government has stood unchanged. As we have stated elsewhere, the secession of the Southern States in 1860-61 was not an effort to destroy the Government, but merely an attempt on the part of those States to withdraw from the Union. The Government of the Union was not even attacked by any one. We have had no revolution nor attempt at revolution since the formation of our Government.

Since our century began there have been many changes in monarchical Europe. England and Russia alone have avoided an overthrow of government. France has had ten revolutions, Prussia one, Austria one, Spain fifteen, and Italy five.

Although England has had no violent revolution, the Government has been compelled by its opponents to make great and important changes. In 1801 the British Empire was formally reconstructed. Ireland was included in it, and the title of the State was changed to the "United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland." The King of England dropped his title of King of France at the same time. A series of reform measures has been steadily forced upon the Government during the past fifty years, which have made England a better, happier, and freer country. Still, while

there have been these changes, it must be admitted that England has not experienced a revolution in the fullest sense of the word. England and Russia, therefore, are the only Governments of Europe which can compare with that of the United States in stability.

The Government of Prussia was forcibly overthrown by the insurgents in 1848, and the king was obliged to accept a new Constitution at their dictation.

In 1848, also, the Kings of Bavaria and Greece were compelled by the insurgents to abdicate their thrones.

In Austria there have been several changes. In 1806 the Holy Roman Empire came to an end, and Francis II. formally resigned the imperial crown. Upon the ruins of this ancient establishment was erected the Hereditary Empire of Austria. In 1848 the Emperor Ferdinand I. was driven from his capital, and was finally obliged to abdicate his throne in favor of his nephew, the present Emperor Francis Joseph, who came to the throne with a new Constitution and new dynastic principles. By the treaty of Prague, in 1866, Austria was forever excluded from Germany, and this change was soon followed by another, in 1867, by which the entire Austrian Empire was remodelled. A new and liberal Constitution was adopted; Hungary was made an independent kingdom, with the Austrian Emperor as king. In 1870 the official title of the State was changed to "The Austro-Hungarian Monarchy."

In France the era of change began with the great Revolution of 1789. In 1792 the Republic was established. In 1795 the Directory and Council of Five Hundred were overthrown and the Consulate established. In 1804 the Empire was established upon the ruins of the Consulate. In 1814 the Kingdom of the Bourbons was restored. In 1815 the Empire was re-established. In the same year the Kingdom was again set up after Waterloo. In 1830 the Liberal Monarchy was established under Louis Philippe. It was overthrown in 1848 and succeeded by the Republic. In 1851 this was overthrown by Louis Napoleon, and in 1853 the Second Empire was established. In 1870 the Empire was overthrown and the Republic set up.

If we turn to Spain the record of revolution and change is bewildering. In 1808 Charles IV. abdicated in favor of his son Ferdinand, who was overthrown by Napoleon, who in the same year made his brother Joseph King of Spain. Before the close of the year Joseph was driven from Madrid and was restored by the French army. In 1814 the Government of Joseph was overturned and Ferdinand was restored to his throne. In 1820 a successful revolution compelled the king to accept a new Constitution, and placed a new Cortes in power. In 1823, by the aid of the Holy Alliance, constitutional government was overturned in Spain and despotism was re-established. In 1833, at the death of Ferdinand, the Infanta Isabella was placed on the throne. In 1840 the Queen Regent abdicated and left Spain, Espartero becoming Regent. In 1843 Espartero was driven from Spain, and the young queen, Isabella, was declared of age. In 1854, by a new revolution, Espartero made himself Prime Minister and actual ruler of Spain. In 1856 he was forced to resign. In the same year the disturbances were so great that dictatorial powers were conferred upon Marshal O'Donnell, the Prime Minister. He was compelled to resign, and Narvaez succeeded him as Prime Minister. In 1868 a successful revolution drove Queen Isabella out of Spain, and placed Prim and Serrano at the head of affairs. In 1870 Amadeus of Savoy became king, but resigned a year or two later. In 1873 the Republic was established. In 1874 it was overthrown and the monarchy restored under the present king, Alfonso XII.

Italy, besides her minor revolutions, has experienced several great changes in her form of government. The wars which grew out of the French Revolution changed

the entire political system of Italy, and in place of the old Germanic Italian Empire established a series of republics, which, in 1802, were consolidated into the Italian Republic, with Napoleon Bonaparte as President. In 1805 the Republic was changed into the Kingdom of Italy. In 1814 the Austrian rule was restored. In 1861 the Kingdom of Italy was established under Victor Emmanuel, and has rapidly absorbed all of Italy.

It appears, then, that a free republic is as apt to avoid revolutions and changes of government as a monarchy. "The map of Europe has been all changed over and over again, and European history, instead of being fixed like the mountains, is changeable like the sea. While, therefore, our Republic has stood like a house founded upon a rock, without being so much as shaken by the storms of surrounding wars and revolutions, the European monarchies have yielded to every popular wave, and been often swept away by the slightest gusts."

If it is said that our comparison is unfair, inasmuch as the European monarchies are single States and our own a confederation, we answer that our own confederacy has remained unshaken while Europe has witnessed the downfall of several of her own of a monarchical character. The German Empire or Confederation has been overthrown four times. The Confederacy of Italian States has been broken up four times. The Austrian Empire has been overturned three times. The little Republic of Switzerland is the only European confederacy that can, during the past century, in the least degree compare with our own in stability.

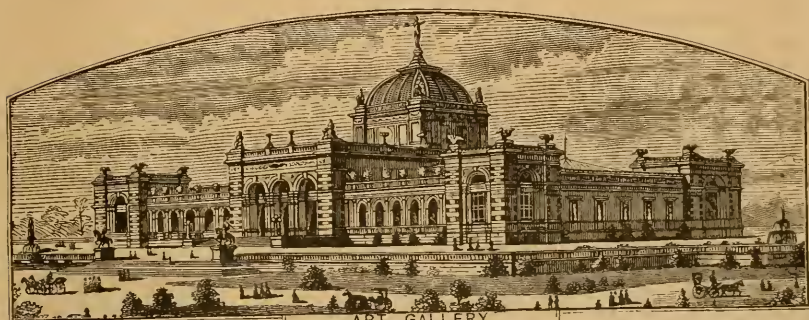
During the century we are considering our Republic has not lost a foot of its territory, but has steadily increased in its territorial area. There is scarcely an important power in Europe but has met with some loss of this kind, either in actual territory or authority over it. England opened the century with the loss of her American colonies. France has lost Hayti and her provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, and has parted with her vast American territory of Louisiana. Prussia has lost all control over Denmark and over Bohemia. Italy has lost Savoy and Nice. Austria has lost her Italian possessions, and has been driven out of Germany. Spain has lost Mexico and her South American colonies.

Comparing our acquisitions with the losses of Europe, we are justified in the conclusion that a free republic is better qualified to retain and enlarge its territory than a monarchy.

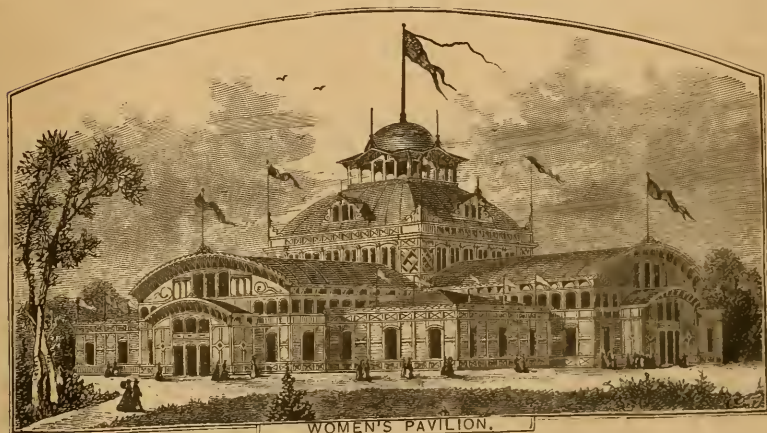
It would seem, then, that in all the essentials of a free, firm Government, in its capacity for conducting its affairs upon a safe and solid basis, in its freedom from violence and change, in its ability to secure protection and happiness to its citizens, and to preserve their freedom and advance their interests in those relations of life over which the legitimate powers of government extend, our free Republic is in all things the equal of any monarchical system of Europe, and in many the superior. Such, then, is one great lesson of the century. Our whole history and that of other lands urge us to cherish our free republican system as our most precious possession, as the basis and prime cause of our greatness and prosperity as a people; and to frown indignantly upon the first dawning of an attempt to inaugurate changes in its vital principles. Let us keep it pure and undefiled as it came down to us from our fathers, and so transmit it to our children.



MAIN EXHIBITION BUILDING.



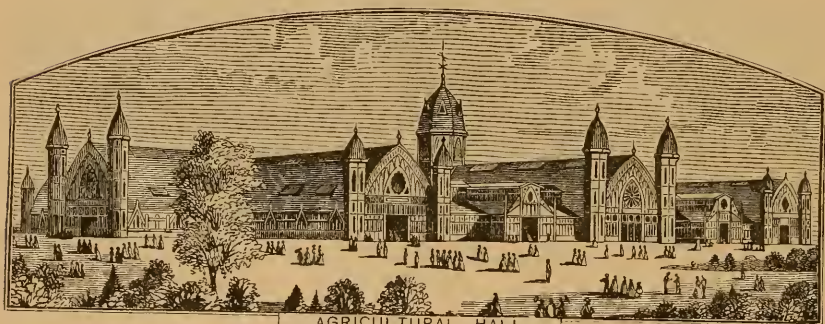
ART GALLERY



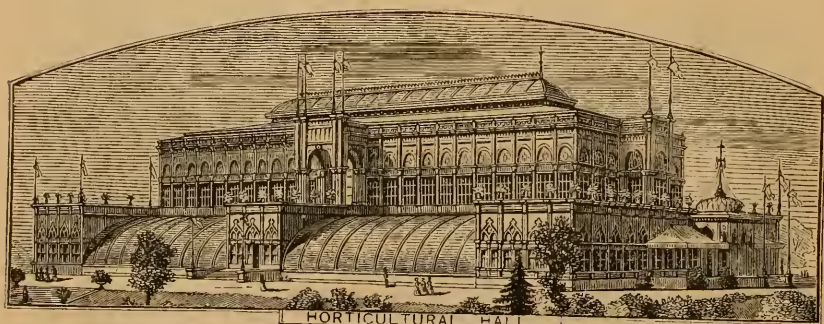
WOMEN'S PAVILION.



MACHINERY HALL.



AGRICULTURAL HALL.

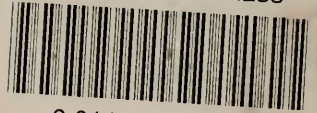


HORTICULTURAL HALL.





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